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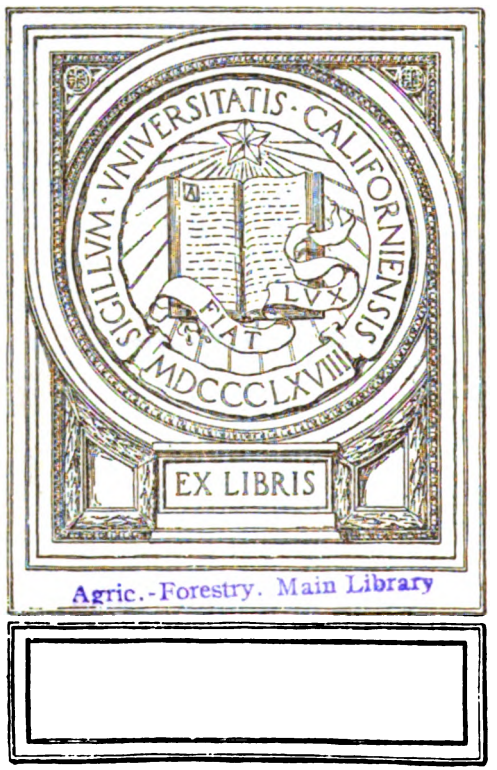
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The Indian forester

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UNIV. OF
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THE

INDIAN FORESTER.

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY,

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL.

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE
FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN

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THE

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Vol. XXIV.] January, 1898. [No. 1.

The Fixation of atmospheric Nitrogen by dead leaves.

Following the important work of M. Henry, whose successful research will be doubly grateful to many Indian foresters for reasons of personal regard, comes a note by M. L. Détrie on the same problem, *viz.*, the reasons for the continual improvement of forest soils, notwithstanding the fact that more nitrogen is removed from them than is known to be acquired by them. The disastrous results of the removal of dead leaves, causing sometimes a loss of as much as 50 per cent., of the normal annual production, are well known to foresters, but have not yet been borne in upon the unwilling minds which oppose forest conservancy. This loss, at any rate the most serious loss, is nitrogen. As regards sufficiency of other food supply, it may be granted that all soils, all waters, all atmospheres are rich enough to keep forests growing for ever. The mineral constituents, salts, &c., necessary to the continued formation of cellulose, starch and other reserve materials, are always to be found in sufficient quantities, resulting from decompositions or recombinations in the soil or atmosphere. But nitrogen, the indispensable, the arbiter of the rate of growth, even of life and death, is an extremely variable quantity. The German experimental stations proved the *amount of lost growth* caused by the removal of dead leaves. M. Grandeau showed that the covering of dead leaves has a great influence on the *amount of nitrogen carried in the soil.* Then came the knowledge of the important part played by micro-organisms, moulds, ferments, microbes &c., in the decomposition of vegetable matter, and it was seen that the layer of dead leaves is not only a layer of partly digestible food material, but is especially a layer of microbes, ferments, &c., a kitchen in fact, where the indigestible materials are rendered easily assimilable. It follows that the mere raking about of the layer, not to

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speak of its removal, interrupts the microbe-cooks and the scullion ferments at their work, and may even kill and bury them under the ruins of their kitchen.

The removal of leaves is thus a wasteful process, since the benefit accruing to the robber is far less than the damage caused to the forest. About this period, namely June 1893, M. Détrie just glimpsed the conclusions which M. Henry has worked out, since he wrote that "the removal, or mere moving, 'of the layer of dead leaves, not only interferes with the for-'mation of vegetable mould, but actually *diminishes the fixa-'tion of nitrogen in the soil by stopping the development of mi-'cro-organisms.*" It remained for M. Henry to decipher the details. Even yet, there are illegible lines at the bottom of the page, and M. Détrie asks for an interpretation. Granted that the increment is affected by the chemico-plysical action of the layer of dead leaves, how can this be reconciled with the admittedly greater increment in the standards after the cutting of the coppice, that is to say, at a period when the layer has been practically destroyed? M. Bartet's experiments showed that in high forest of 3 ages, up to a height of 9 m. 30 cm, the curve of diametral increment is inflected from the 1st to the 3rd decennial period, that is, inversely to the thickness of the layer of dead leaves. The cause of this greater increment is not explained, although theories more or less at variance with existing knowledge have been propounded. The problem has puzzled M. Détrie for the last 10 years, perhaps some Indian forester can throw light upon it.

Imports of Quebracho wood into Germany.

The following translation of an article in the *Révue des Eaux et Forêts* by M. H. de Clercq, Vice-Consul of France, should be of interest to Indian Forest Officers as it shows that it is desirable that India should join in the competition for tannin stuffs and should as far as possible follow the example of America and use tannin material of local production.

The imports of the wood and extract of quebracho into Germany, which had attained such large proportions during these last years, are at the present moment showing a marked retrograde movement. After having risen to 81,395 tons in 1895, they did not reach higher than 67,395 tons in 1896, being a falling off of 20,210 tons. And if, in the meantime, nothing occurs to modify existing economic conditions, there is a strong probability of a further decrease. The entries during the first quarter of 1897 do not exceed 6,645 tons and prove a diminution of 60 per cent., on the figures for the corresponding period of 1896.

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If the Reichstag must, to a certain extent, be held responsible for this result, seeing that it has imposed on these products duties which German tanners maintain are excessive and injurious to their industry in the face of competition from abroad, there are nevertheless other causes which have contributed to the same result in a not less effective manner.

If those interested in the matter are to be believed, the American Leather Syndicate is one of these causes. By favouring the development of the tanning business in America, it has by that fact itself brought forward into the market a purchaser who has swept up all existing and available stocks, thereby creating wide fluctuations of prices, so that it is believed that the trade in the wood and extract has been hit hard by him, if not definitively killed.

Without denying the share of the syndicate in reducing the imports of quebracho into Germany, it is quite as probable that the principal cause of the diminished supply of the wood entering the markets is the extensive use of it made by the Government of the Argentine Republic. As we already know, in that country the wood is employed for railway sleepers on account of its great strength, density and durability, and the results hitherto obtained have been so satisfactory and encouraging, that such employment of the wood is daily on the increase and there is even an idea of protecting the home supply by means of an export duty. If this idea eventually becomes a fact, the importation of quebracho into Germany will be rendered almost impossible, and the scarcity of the product, resulting in a further enhancement of prices, will not fail to increase the pressure already felt by the tanners of that country.

This pressure will be felt all the more acutely that the owners of woods and forests, having had to give up barking their oaks owing to the great fall in the price of oak bark, now almost completely forsaken for quebracho, will not fail to do their best in order to recoup themselves for past losses. And they will have every chance of succeeding; for in the absence of the American wood and of other substances which, like chestnut wood, divi-divi, hemlock spruce, sumach and so on, which have taken the place of oak bark, but the tanning value of which is very variable and which are held in different degrees of estimation by different individuals in the leather industry, a return to oak bark will be inevitable. Now foresters believe that Germany is no longer able to meet the demands of its tanners for this article. The partiality of the tanners for quebracho, it is affirmed, and their agitation for a reduction of the import duty on it, have led forest proprietors, both large and small, to substitute in all recent plantations pine and silver fir for oak.

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If such is really the case, and after discounting for exaggeration I must admit it, the German tanners will (unless their Government comes to their rescue) as a result of a situation which they themselves have assisted to create, find themselves face to face with difficulties particularly hard to solve, on the solution of which, however, will hang the fate of their industry.

II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

The after-training of Coopers Hill men.

SIR,

In the October number of the 'Indian Forester' you published a letter by 'Scrutator,' in which the writer proposes that the new arrivals from Coopers Hill should, for their first year in India, be sent to the Forest School at Dehra Dún, and he hopes that the subject may be brought to the notice of higher authorities. As a matter of fact, the subject has been repeatedly before Government, which has not taken action in the direction desired by Scrutator, because the advantages obtainable by sending the new arrivals to Dehra Dún are far outweighed by the disadvantages.

Under present arrangements, the students remain seven terms (2⅓ years) at Coopers Hill College, and they spend the last two terms on the Continent. While at the College they are instructed in the auxiliary branches of science and in forestry. The instruction in the latter comprises the whole theory of the profession illustrated by visits to suitable forests in Britain and in France. The students are also made acquainted with the general character of Indian forest vegetation, and the sylvicultural characteristics of the more important trees, and the provisions of the Indian Forest Code are explained to them. On or about the 15th January of the third year, the students are placed, two and two, for five months, under selected continental forest officers, who introduce them to the management of forests which have been systematically treated for a century. Here they become acquainted with all branches of practical work as found in European forests. At the end of this apprenticeship I collect the students and visit with them specially interesting forest districts, so as to widen their views and show them more varying conditions, than may be found in the district where they served their apprenticeship. Of the districts visited in 1897, I may mention:—

(1) The silver fir and spruce woods of the Black Forest treated under the selection system, group system, and uniform compartment system.
(2) The oak and beech woods of the Spessart (Bavaria.)
(3) The Scotch pine woods of the Hauptsmoor near Bamberg (Bavaria.)

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(4) The famous coppice with standards forests near Kippenheim (Baden.)

(5) The forests near Viernheim (Hesse Darmstadt) where a combination of forestry and the growing of field crops has been carried on for about 90 years.

In this way, the students become acquainted not only with the theory of forestry, as Scrutator seems to think, but also with its practical application as illustrated in forests which have been systematically managed during a century. Last but not least, they become acquainted with, and are thoroughly impressed by, the beneficial effects of long continued systematic management and undisturbed *continuity of action*. The latter is of special importance to men, who have to work in India, a country where the Government officers change so rapidly, and where every new broom is so much inclined to sweep away what its predecessor has done, and to start afresh again.

Men, trained as I have just indicated, had much better go direct to the provinces in which they are to serve. No doubt they would learn a good deal at Dehra Dún, but it would be of comparatively small use to men destined for Burma, Madras, Bombay and Assam; and even the men for Bengal, the Central Provinces and the Punjab will do better to set to work at once in their own province. The conditions in the several provinces differ so much, that they must be studied on the spot. Moreover, it is essential that the men should as speedily as possible become acquainted with the local language. As to procedure and accounts, that can be learned in any other part of India, just as well as in Dehra Dún, while the proper clearing and burning of a fire line can be learned by a man of ordinary intelligence in a comparatively short time. Moreover, even that differs very much in different provinces. And there is yet another point, which should not be overlooked. The Dún and the Jaunsar hills have not only a fair climate, but they offer also a considerable amount of amusement, for which many of the young men would be sure to sigh, after joining in a province where the conditions are somewhat different.

On all counts, then, it is much better to let the new arrivals set to work at once in their own provinces. At the same time, Local Governments and their Conservators should make it a point to place every new arrival under a thoroughly competent divisional officer who is likely to introduce him to the work in an intelligent manner, and not to post junior officers in a haphazard way to any division where some extra help may be required at the moment. In my opinion, this point is fully worthy of the immediate and earnest attention of all Local Governments.

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I repeatedly urged the matter upon Conservators, when I was Inspector-General of Forests.

Now that the systematic preparation and control of Working Plans, which I had the honor of inaugurating fourteen years ago, has made such good progress, junior forest officers can learn the practical application to Indian conditions of what they have learned in Europe, in every province, and it would be a considerable waste of time to send them on arrival in India for a year to Dehra Dún, apart from the serious drawbacks which I have indicated above. I know that Sir D. Brandis and other experienced foresters hold the same views, and Colonel Pennycuick, President of Coopers Hill College, has, guided by his long experience in Southern India, formed views which are identical with those expressed by me.

COOPERS HILL,
Decr. 1897.

W. SCHLICH.

India Rubber.

SIR,

With reference to your note on India Rubber in the "Indian Forester" for October last p. 369, where, in referring to my article on the same subject in "Nature" you take exception to my using the expression "a veritable forest of trunks" when describing on old and widely spread tree of *Ficus elastica*, may I be allowed to say that you have quite mistaken my meaning. I should like, with your permission, to quote the entire paragraph from "Nature" which runs as follows :—"The plant is so well known as a parlour plant in 'this country, producing its fine glossy leaves, under almost 'any conditions, that the fact is scarcely realised that in India 'and Ceylon it produces a veritable forest of trunks, and covers 'the ground with its long-stretching buttresses or roots which 'run sometimes for distances of 30 or 40 feet" I am here briefly describing the habit of a single tree with its numerous aerial roots which have grown into props or stems such as is often seen in photographs and described by Brandis, Gamble and others. In no part of my paper do I speak of "*Ficus elastica forming* large forests in India and Ceylon."

MUSEUM, ROYAL GARDENS, KEW,
23rd November, 1897.

JOHN R. JACKSON.

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Calotropis procera and gigantea.

I was very pleased to see a communication in the November number from Mr. Gleadow on the above subject. I should be obliged if other Forest officers in other parts of India would condescend to offer their opinion and experience similarly, if they possess any, regarding the fibre of the plants. No one, so far, I observe, has responded to the appeal I made in September last regarding their distribution in Districts, and I repeat the appeal, especially to officers in Burmah, Madras and the Central Provinces. Through the courtesy of the Hon'ble Mr. Shuttleworth of the Central Circle and Mr. Betham of the Southern Circle, Bombay, I have been able to obtain information officially about the distribution of the plants in the Districts of their Circles. Information that has reached me so far from various localities in the Bombay Presidency confirms the view that to make the fibre marketable, the plant must be artificially produced. At present, in its scattered wild state, only a few hundred tons of fibre per annum probably will be available from the cut stems: what is needed, of course, is several thousands of tons and this quantity will, I feel sanguine, be ultimately available as soon as the natives realize that the cut stems of the plants are a source of income to them.

I am rather surprised to hear that the fibre of the *C. gigantea* is not used in the Deccan. What Mr. Gleadow says however about it being neglected there, is corroborated in a measure by Mr. Fagan, another shrewd observer, who says that in the Central Circle its capability of producing fibre is unknown to the natives. It would be interesting to learn whether it is unknown to or neglected by the natives elsewhere. Wherever I have served, the people appeared to be fully alive to the uses of the fibre, and one individual in Thana volunteered the information that in parts of the Nasik District *C. gigantea* is grown specially for its fibre. This information may or may not be accurate. I am, however, ascertaining the facts. In the Nasik District, at any rate, Mr. Millett states *C. gigantea* is abundant and there possibly may be some truth in the statement.

Liotard, in his pamphlet "Materials in India suitable to the manufacture of paper" says, that "in the Punjab the fibre is 'available from the branches of *C. procera* by cutting down 'the largest branches in October and November or April and 'May, or the periods when the *muddar* blossoms and just before it ripens its seed." The plants, wherever I have observed them, seemed to be almost in perpetual blossom and the fibre, if I remember aright, in Sind is available from *C. procera* all the year round. Of Thana I am not in a position

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yet to speak; but I may mention that I have extracted the fibre from *C. gigantea* when not in blossom. Whether the fibre extracted is of use on not commercially I cannot say, but there seems no difference in its quality. I may satisfy those like Mr. Gleadow, however, who possess qualms of conscience as to the quality of *C. gigantea* and *C. procera* being equally good, by saying that Mr. Macdonald the expert who experimented with *C. gigantea* fibre in November last in the Konkan declared it to be excellent. I had sent home specimens of *C. procera* fibre to his firm and it was entirely owing to the excellence of the quality of this fibre that Mr. Macdonald was induced to come out to India.

Apart from this, if authorities such as Dalzell (Bombay Flora 1861, page 141); Drury, (Useful Plants of India 1873, page 101); Liotard; and Royle, (Fibrous Plants of India 1855 pp. 306 to 310), are consulted, the assertion that the fibre of both plants is equally good will, it is thought, be found to be confirmed. The only questions to be solved, I think, now are, whether there is a sufficiently large quantity of the fibre available from *C. procera* and *C. gigantea* in their natural state to render it marketable in various parts of India and if not whether there are areas which can be taken in hand for the artificial production of the plants, and whether any machine will extract the fibre in a merchantable condition. On the latter point, I may say that Messrs. Boyle & Co's representative, Mr. Macdonald, visited Thana in November, but not with his machine, and after conducting experiments with the cut stems of *C. gigantea*, came to the conclusion that his machine, which is utilized extensively in the Straits Settlements for extracting Rhea fibre, could extract fibre from *C. gigantea* with certain slight modifications. He is so convinced of this that he has addressed the Bombay Government to obtain certain concessions to exploit the fibre in Bombay for a lengthened period. The action taken by Messrs. Boyle & Co. tends rather to upset the conclusions previously come to by Dr. Watt, who conducted experiments on the fibre in conjunction with Mr. Cross of Lincoln's Inn and who says (Dictionary of Economic Products Vol. II. page 40.) "The opinion we arrived at confirms the 'verdict already given that the mechanical difficulties are too 'great and the ultimate fibrils too short to justify high hopes 'being entertained of *Madar* bast fibre becoming of any great 'commercial importance, although its great beauty makes one 'resign it with regret."

Mr. Gleadow appears to be of opinion that the plant is of such a straggling light-demanding habit, that it could not probably be grown dense enough to give any considerable yield; but he seems not to have made any experiments on the point. In Mr. Strettell's pamphlet on *C. gigantea* published in 1878

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(page 73) he gives the yield of fibre per acre at 582 lbs. or 727 lbs. where waste is guarded against, and I have never seen his estimate controverted.

G. M. R.

30th Dec., 1897.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Cacao and India Rubber in Mexico.

(*Extract from Foreign Office Report No. 385 Miscellaneous series of 1895, by Mr. H. N. Dering.*

The Cacao of Mexico.—Full Description of its Cultivation.

The tree that produces the "food of the gods" (chocolate), "*Theobroma Cacao*" of Linnæus, "cacari," or "cacava quahuitl" of the ancient Mexicans, and "cacao" of the Spaniards, is a native of Mexico.

Long before the Conquest, the Aztecs and other ancient Mexican tribes used the fruit as one of their alimentary beverages. They prepared a drink called chocolatl by mixing the seeds, after having crushed them on the metatl, together with fine corn meal, vanilla ("tlilxochitl") and a species of spice called "mecaxocoitl," and those that drank it were a picture of health, preserving handsome and vivid features even to old age. All nations subjugated under the Aztec eagle had to bring, among other valuables, a certain number of bags of cacao to the palace in the great Tenochtitla as an annual tribute to the Emperor. It was so highly prized amongst the ancient natives, that in trade it was utilised as currency among the lower classes.

The varieties cultivated were namely:—the quauhcahuatl," "mecacahuatl," "zochicucahuatl," and "tlacacahuatl." The bean of the last one was very small, analogous to the kind found at present at Soconusco, Chiapas. The fruit produced in Zoconochco, in the provinces of Tabasco and Chiapas was considered as the best.

The followers of Hernan Cortez endeavoured in vain to maintain the plantations then existing, but it is a well-known fact that in the conquest of this country by the Spaniards, agriculture and the industries thon known retrograded so much that the cultivation of the cacao, as well as that of the cotton plant, suffered to such an extent as almost to reduce both to a wild state. The conquered Mexicans were compelled to work in the mines and serve in slavery, and were thereby obliged to neglect their plantations. And as the conquerers were not versed in the culture, the industry was

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nearly abandoned and did not take a new life until some Spaniards started one or to two large plantations in Choutalpa, Tabasco, a few years before Mexico threw off the Spanish yoke. Other plantations were established in different sections of Tabasco and Chiapas.

Chocolate, the product of the fruit, was first introduced into Europe (Spain) by the Spaniards from Mexico. Portugal followed in the use of it; France and England did not appreciate its full qualities until the latter part of the seventeenth century. After the year 1878 it came into vogue in all the cities in Europe. Its alimentary virtues became more generally known, and Doret, a Frenchman, invented a hydraulic machine to manufacture it on a large scale. Since then all civilised nations have consumed this rich American product of Mexican origin, which up to date is not produced in sufficient quantities to meet the word's consumption.

This tree is found growing wild and in cultivation in the States of Colima, Michoacan, Guerrero, Oaxaca (districts of Jamiltepec and Tuxtepec). Chipas (districts of Soconusco, Mezcalapa, Pichucalco, Simojovel, and Palenque), Tabasco, and central and southern Vera Cruz, where the elevation is from 100 to 1,200 feet above sea-level, but Chiapas and Tabasco are noted as being its home, the climate and soil there being more particularly adapted to its culture and development than any other portion of the globe.

The production of cacao in the year 1893 was 2,147,730 kilos, valued at 837,197 dol. In 1870 the States of Tabasco, Colima, Chiapas, Guerrero, Michacoan, Oaxaca, and Vera Cruz had 569,795 trees in cultivation, producing an annual crop of 31,285 quintals, worth to the planters 782,125 dol.

Cacao is an evergreen tree of medium size, which if grown in a good soil and left to itself will reach a height of 20 to 30 feet, and spead out to an extent of 10 feet or more on each side. At the height of a few feet from the ground it sends out three to six lateral branches ("horquetas") without any sign of a leading stem, and it is only when the branches are matured that a leader or leaders ("rama chupona") spring out from the side, and not from the centre of these branches. The leaves are smooth, alternate, lanceolate, pendent, of a deep green colour, 9 to 10 inches long by 3 inches across. The flowers small, of a pale yellow or very light red colour, and they come off in a bunch from the stem, branches, and the place where a leaf formerly existed. It is rarely that more than one of them develops into fruit, and thus many more flowers are borne on the trees than fruit pods. The cucumber-shaped pods are 5 to 9 inches long, and nearly 4 inches in diameter at their widest part, with a thick, almost woody rind. They are

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pinched in at the top and pointed at the end, the point being curved to one side. The skin is first light green, then of a yellowish red colour, with ten furrows and tuberculated ridges. These indicate a five-celled fruit, which contains on an average 38 seeds, embedded in its sweetish pulp.

The species most cultivated in Mexico are: Cacao or *Theobroma ovalifolia T. bicolor* and *T. angustifolia* There are other kinds known, generally found growing wild, which come under the head of the Guazumæ or guacima, *Guazuma polybotrya* being the principal species.

Practice and study have shown us that the chocolate tree will thrive well in virgin lands recently cleared, but rich in organic matter and minerals, and as it has a long tap root, the surface soil needs to be deep and thick with humus. The best soil, however, is that occurring in valleys and undulating lands, along the banks of rivers or streams made by years of alluvial deposits, or by the decomposition of volcanic rocks. A proof of this is shown in the department of Soconusco, Chiapas. It will also grow well in loams and the richer marls, but it will not thrive in stiff heavy clay.

A warm moist climate, having a mean temperature between 76° and 77° Fahr., is necessary for the cultivation of cacao if large crops are expected, but, when the soil is suitable, the tree will grow and give fair returns in a moderately dry or well drained location. The ordinary cacao plant will not do well in the mountains above 600 metres (1.968 feet), and even at that height it becomes stunted, and is fruitful only for a few years. The best elevation is from 300 to 500 feet, and in sheltered situations near the seashore good crops are to be obtained, but the tree will not thrive if exposed to the direct influence of the sea-breeze. Cacao will not bear much exposure, hence sheltered lands and valleys should be selected, and on the Gulf side of Chiapas, Tabasco and Vera Cruz, northern and eastern aspects should be avoided. Still, locations in Colima, Michoacan, Guerrero, and Oaxaca, on the Pacific side having a south and south-western exposure must not be preferred for the formation of successful plantations.

Cacao plants are obtained from the seed which germinates readily and quickly. The best-looking pods from the April or May crop which are not over-ripe should be picked for the purpose. Those known as hechas are generally preferred by the planters. These are distinguished from the viches by their light colour, solid appearance, the seeds not rattling inside. After selecting the largest seeds from healthy pods, the former are soaked in lukewarm water for 12 or 18 hours, avoiding those assuming a reddish tint, and likewise those floating on the water. The rest are left to dry.

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A virgin spot close to a spring or stream whose soil is not porous, in the immediate vicinity of the plot to be planted, should be selected for the nursery. For the convenience of handing, more than one nursery should be formed along the plot, 300 feet distant, if a large sized plantation is to be established. The spot is prepared by hoeing the soil, extracting the weeds and roots, and pulverising the earth with a rake; then beds are made 5 feet wide by any length, separating each one by a walk 3 feet wide. Small furrows are made about an inch in depth and about 12 inches apart, and seeds are sown in them 8 inches one from the other. That part of the seed attached to the stringy centre of the pods is the one to be placed downwards in sowing. The seed is covered with vegetable mould or loose loam mixed with horse manure, and over that banana leaves. The bed is sprinkled every day for 12 or 15 days, when seedlings appear. Then the banana leaves are removed, and sheds, made of palm leaves and sticks, so fixed that they can be raised as the seedling grows, should be placed over the nursery as shade and shelter; no weeds or grass are allowed on the beds.

The sprinkling should be continued when necessary, or on rainless days, and the palm leaves are gradually taken off, but not altogether until the plants are ready to transplant. The operation of forming the nursery is done in some places in the month of April and May, and in other localities as late as September.

Either in the month of February or March the planter's attention must be directed to the preparation of the land; in some places, where the rains cease early in the season, that is done in December or January. The forests having been cut down (tumba) the branches must be lopped and strewn (rozada) evenly over the ground before they are burnt (quemada). But when the forest is cleared, shade belts should be left, or afterwards planted in exposed places so as to shelter the cacao trees from the wind.

Of course the felled forest trees must be allowed to remain for a time exposed to the sun, otherwise the smaller branches will not catch fire properly. Where possible it is better not to burn the bush, but to pack it in lines between the young plants or madres, in order that, by its rotting, it may add to the richness of the soil, otherwise the nitrogenous compounds so beneficial to plant life are sent off into the atmosphere by the burning.

Immediately after the burning, which should take place in April, or a month after the land is cleared; corn and beans are sown on the plot. If the land has no natural trees suitable for shade, mother cacao (madres) are looked for such as mataraton, pito, cocoite, chipilcocoite, and choutal. The last-named, a broad leaved tree, is not good for anything but to give shade and

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shelter. Cocoite and chipilcocoite, small leaved trees, are hard wood and are used by preference for posts for houses. These trees are obtained from forests in the shape of cuttings or young plants, and planted in the beginning of the rainy season and at a distance of from 15 to 18 feet apart on rich, flat land, but on poorer soil and on hill sides, from 12 to 16 feet will be the proper distance. Rubber can also be planted as shade, but it requires more scientific work and care. In July and August the corn and beans are harvested, and the plot thoroughly cleaned; the banana suckers can then be planted between every four madres, providing rubber has not been thought of and no preparations made to raise it. In the spring of the following year another crop of corn can be sown between the madres leaving a hill close to the place destined for the cacao seedling which will serve as chichihuas, temporary shade, to the young plant when transplanted. In Chiapas and Tabasco trees called challa and madre serrana are utilised for this purpose. A year after sowing, seedings are 50 centims. (20 inches) high and ready to be transplanted.

In the beginning of the rains, on a cloudy day, the operation of transplanting is proceeded with. A peon with a machete cuts a square line around the seedling and with a spade (coa) lifts up earth and seedling; this is done in 15 to 20 minutes. Then another peon wraps up the whole mass with a large leaf grown on a plant called hoja blanca, found in those sections. In the meantime the holes are being made, they are dug 8½ feet away from the madres if these are set 17 feet apart, so as to form a square with a mother cacao in the middle. The holes should be 2 feet square and 2 feet deep, that is 8 cubic feet of earth must be taken up, this can be done by a practical man inside of 5 minutes, in soft soil. The earth around the seedling after transplanting must be well pressed with the foot, but at the same time, before finishing that operation, dried leaves are mixed with the soil to be placed on top.

Of course, land under cacao cultivation, as under all proper and successful cultivation, should be keep clear of weeds. In the first place the plot should be drained off to ensure quick crops; and then proper tillage will improve the soil and do good to the trees. To accomplish this, 4 weedings (ladeas) are necessary in the first 3 years, 3 in the second 3 years, and 2 in the following years. On steep hill sides cutlassing will be sufficient, and on level places hoeing will be required. When the trees are grown so that their branches shade the land, the weeds will not grow very fast, and as a rule they are so loosely rooted that they may be easily pulled up. The cultivation and harvesting of the side crops must be attended to in due time. The cacao planter should give careful attention to the pruning of the trees and trimming of the madres if he wishes to get a large yield. As the pods are borne on the larger branches, the principle is to

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develop such branches by judicious pruning and to see that they are not covered up by a mass of foliage and small twigs. A typical cacao tree should have one stem, giving off at a few feet from the ground three or five branches which spread in an open manner and are free from leaves except at the top; thus the leaves shade the open inner portion without interfering with a free circulation of the air. If the young plants throw out more than one main stem, the surplus ones (mamones or chuponas) must be pruned off when the moon is on the wane, and after the lateral branches are formed no upward prolongation of the stem must be allowed to grow. If the tree be left alone these upward growing branches will come off from the stem just below the laterals, in the form suckers, and to leave them on is to cause the strength to be taken from these fruitful laterals, as well as to allow the trees to run up, perhaps for 30 feet or more, thereby causing much trouble in picking the pods. When the suckers are pruned off, fresh ones will grow in a short time, generally in a month, so that the trees will require frequent attention until they are mature, when the tendency to throw out suckers will be stopped. In gathering the pods, the suckers may be taken off at the same time, but the trees should not be pruned in the flowering season.

Unless in the case of sickly plants on poor soil the trees will not require manuring until the crops are taken off, when, as may be imagined, it will be necessary to restore to the soil, in a cheap way, what has been removed in the valuable produce. A good deal will depend on the nature of the soil and the yield of the trees. Should crops which were abundant, be found to be falling off, it is an indication that manure is necessary. A compost of yard manure and bone dust in the proportion of 5,000 cart loads of yard manure and 500 lbs. of bone dust per hectare of land applied every 3 years is all that is required. The successful harvesting of cacao requires great care and watchfulness, as it is a fruit that has many enemies, the principal ones being parrots, squirrels, tusas (a species of gopher), tepeiscuintle another animal of the rodent class, and ants especially those known under the name of arrieras. But damage by these can be obviated by proper cultivation and care.

Returns from a cacao plantation (motelar) can not be expected until after 5 years from transplanting. At 2 years old the tree, in rich soil, stands 5 or 6 feet high; when 7 or 8 feet high it begins to bear (jugar), but it is not in full bearing (cuaja) until it is between 10 and 12 feet high. The first flowers under favourable conditions will come out at the third year, but, as the tree is not matured then, they should by no means be allowed to produce pods, otherwise the plant will be so weakened by the fruiting that its growth will be greatly checked. The first flowers, therefore, should all be rubbed off.

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After the leaves of the flower fall, a bud appears like the common Mexican chile pepper and takes 3 or 4 months to mature. Peons or mozos must be employed daily until the crop is harvested, as birds and squirrels are apt to eat the bud and afterwards the seed. The cacao tree flowers all the year round, and the pickings of the fruit are divided into four harvests or seasons. The first, which covers the first 3 months of the year, is known as inveranada; the second, lasting through April, May, and June, is the cosecha or harvest proper, and is the most abundant of the four; the product of the third, extending over July, August, and September, is known as cacao loco; and that of the three last months of the year as alegron.

The average yield of dry cacao from each tree of course varies very much. The limits may be said to be from 1½ to 8 lbs. per tree. Some trees in the plantation of "La Carolina," district of Macuspana, Tabasco, produce 220 pods, and plantations in Alvarez, Colima, and in Apatzingan, Michovean, yield on an average 5 lbs. to the tree. Generally, one can reckon on 50 pods (mazorcas) per tree a year, which produce from 30 to 40 kernels (almendras), and 250 dried kernels will weigh 1 lb. The trees of cacao blanco or verdoso and cacao morado yield the most, hence the Tabasco and Chiapas planters prefer them above the other kinds. Chocolate trees last from 30 to 40 years and produce fruit for 20 to 25 years by proper cultivation.

In picking (el corte) the pods, care should be taken that they are fully ripe. A little observation and experience is all that is necessary to tell at once by the look whether the pod be ripe or not.

If it be within reach, it may be tapped with the knuckles or with the handle of a knife, and if it sound hollow it is ready for picking. The fruit must be cut from the tree with a machete, cacao knife or cacao hook, and on no account ought it to be twisted or torn off the tree, nor the fruit to be allowed to drop on the ground.

The cut should be clean and as close to the pod as possible, for, if a tree be examined, it will be found that at the base of the stalk of the pod there is a little swelling called the eye, and it is from this part that the flowers for the next crop will come out. If, therefore, the eye be torn away no more pods can come out from that part of the stem.

The pods, having been gathered, are placed in heaps under the trees; then they are taken to a place called quebradero, where they may be broken at once or left for a day. The kernels or nibs are then taken out of the pods which are either opened with a machete, or a knife made from a wood called jahuacte. The seeds may be drawn with the fingers, or by

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means of a wooden spoon, and at the same time the white fibrous tissue is taken away. This stringy stuff and the broken pods should be put in heaps to rot for manure, or be spread over the roots of the trees, or better still be buried between the trees, and in this way something will be given back to the soil.

As the seeds are extracted from the pods, the former are thrown into wooden troughs called tollas, half-filled with water, to wash them; the beans are now carried away to the cacao house for the purpose of being made to undergo the sweating or fermentation process. This is a very important matter for the planter, inasmuch on its proper performance depends, to a great extent, the value of his produce. In some places the cacao beans are simply dried as soon as they are taken out of the pods, and the cacao thus prepared is sold or shipped to the markets. But it is very inferior stuff with a bitter unpleasant taste, and it fetches a low price. Sweating is simple and inexpensive. It may be done in boxes or barrels or in an air-tight room. The cacao is put into a receptacle, it is covered with plantain (platano) leaves, boards are put on the top, and it is left to ferment for about 3 days, when it is removed to another receptacle, closed up again, and allowed to sweat for 3 days longer. The object of opening the cacao is to cause the fermentation to be equal: for, in changing it, that which is on top at first becomes the bottom layer in the second receptacle, and thus uniformity is secured. When the cacao is sweated in heaps in a closed house, the heap must be turned over or stirred up on the third day, and in this way the outside beans will get their full turn of the fermentation process. Some fine kinds of cacao do not require to sweat so long, but experience alone can determine this point. In the fermentation, the first stages of the germination of the seed go on. The moisture, warmth, and a certain amount of air cause the seeds to swell, carbonic acid is given off, and the food stored up in the seed for the use of th embryo is converted into soluble matter, and this accounts for the modification of the bitter taste of the raw bean brought about by the sweating process. In some places the beans are sweated without washing them, claiming that thus the aromatic principles of the cacao are not altered. The beans having been properly sweated they are to be dried ready for shipment. The drying may be done in wooden trays or on paved or cemented platforms or yards. Also a fixture can be made where the trays are placed stationary and a roof on rollers placed over them. When the sun is out the roof is rolled back and the cacao beans exposed; during rain and at nights the roof is rolled over the trays and in this way time and labour in carrying out the trays and taking them in again are saved. When they are dried in yards, the sweated beans are spread out thinly, well

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rubbed and exposed to the sun in the morning, and at mid-day they are put back in the sweating boxes or houses to undergo another partial fermentation, for if they be dried straight off they will deteriorate in value. A peon must turn them over once in a while during the day so as to expose the whole seed, otherwise one side only will become red and the other black. The second day they are kept longer in the sun, and the third day they are kept out as long as the sun lasts. They are put out on succeeding days until they are thoroughly dry, which is told by their producing a crackling sensation when pressed between the thumb and forefinger, or when the parchment (outer skin) breaks off easily. To brighten the colour to a deeper red the seed is washed in 33 per cent. solution of lemon or sour orange juice. Sometimes the cacao is clayed, and this can be done by sprinkling the beans with red clay that has been dried and pulverised, immediately after they have been removed from the sweating boxes. On the second day the same process is gone through if the clay has not tinged all the beans. Then the beans are rubbed between the hands for an our or two in order to clear away the surplus mucilaginous matter. The drying is afterwards finished as usual. Clayed cacao has a reddish appearance and the colour is uniform, and it usually fetches big prices in the markets.

The market classification known as Tabasco and Chiapas consists of cacao colorado as first class, cacao palenque as second class, and cacao pacha as third class. The uses of cacao are many ; the broken or empty pods besides being a good fertiliser are used by the peons, roasted, in lieu of chocolate on account of their low price. A mixture, called pozol or chorote, made of ground pop-corn, piloncillo (brown sugar), and cacao, is used in water by the weary traveller or by the fatigued peon in the field as a nutritious and refreshing drink. A preparation called broma or cocoa is manufactured and very much appreciated by the cold-blooded Anglo-Saxon. The cacao-nibs ground in paste sweetened and flavoured with vanilla and cinnamon, yield chocolate, so much relished by the Latin races. Lastly, the oil of the seed yields a non-rancid fat, cacao butter, used in pharmaceutical preparations.

As to cost and expense, generally cacao planters in Chiapas and Tabasco make contracts paying 90 to 100 dol. per 1,000 trees, according to the location, facilities of transportation, etc, to be delivered in a state of production in 4 years, the plantation to be in good condition and with proper shade. The contractor keeps the products and first crop of the plantation. If the planter has his own labourers, he pays them from 5 to 8 dol. per month and rations, then the cost will be from 70 to 80 dol. per 1,000 trees. Where the labour is not done by

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contract but by jornales, or tasks, the cost for 6 years per hectare (2·471 acres) is as follows :—

	At 50 c. per Task.	
	Dol.	c.
10 tasks for the stubbing	5	0
12 ,, for felling trees	6	0
4 ,, for collecting brush	2	0
6 ,, for collecting trees	3	0
3 ,, for burning	1	50
2 ,, to cut 375 madre cuttings	1	0
2 ,, to carry them to the plot	1	0
4 ,, for planting same	2	0
100 cacao pods for nursery	2	0
10 tasks to establish nursery, with shade	6	0
6 ,, for weeding the nursery	3	0
20 ,, for hoeing or ploughing plot	10	0
5 ,, for digging the cacao seedlings	2	50
15 ,, for transplanting and transporting ..	7	50
140 ,, six years weeding	70	0
136 ,, for replacing and pruning trees	68	0
Cost of the land	1	0
Consequently there is a cost of ..	191	50

for 750 trees. The expense of collecting, drying, and sacking the seed is from 3 to 5 dol. per carga of 60 lbs.

Thus 750 trees will produce the planter 75 cargas (4,500 lbs.) the price of which is from 20 dol. to 22 dol. per carga at the plantation. Deducting the cost of curing, he will have a net annual profit of more than 1,225 dol., besides the product obtained from corn, bananas, and vanilla raised as side crops, and bees.

The Mexican Rubber.

The rubber tree (*Castilloa elastica* of Cervantes, olquaquitl of the Aztecs, hule of the Spaniards) is indigenous in Mexico, and is found growing wild along both coasts, below 22 degrees North latitude, from sea-level to altitudes running from 1,200 to 1,500 feet, and principally by the river meadows. The region most favourable for the growth of this important yet rarely cultivated tree are: the plains of Pochutla, Oaxaca, between the Pacific Ocean and the base of the Sierra Madre Cordillera, and also along the banks of the Copalita River ; in Soconusco, Chiapas, below the coffee belt, and in Pichucalco and Mezcalapa along the great Grijalva River clear down to Tabasco ; in the Papalopana and Tuxtepec Valleys clear up to the Rivers Tonto and Quiotepec, and the lands on the Gulf side of the Isthmus, covering an extension of 1,100 square miles, where the tree is found in astonishing numbers throughout the forests that skirt the Coatzacoalcos, Uspanapa, Coachapa, Chalchijapa, Del Corte, Chichihua, Malatengo, Sarabia, Jumuapa, Jaltepec, San Juan, Trinidad and Colorado Rivers.

Few are the plantations of rubber existing in the Republic, the principal one is "La Esmeralda," in Juquila, Oaxaca, which

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has over 200,000 trees 8 years old, and the next is a plantation in the hacienda "Doña Felipa Ortiz," in Pichucalco, Chiapas, consisting of 10,000 trees 7 years old.

The hule tree belongs to the Urticaceæ, grows from 45 to 50 feet high, and has branches only at its upper section; has smooth yellow bark, its leaves are 6 to 10 inches long, oval, oblong, entire, thick, smooth, bright green, and glossy above. The umbrella-like form of the tree, which covers 10 feet square, is often seen among the mamey-zapote, striving to free itself, and rising majestically over the neighbouring trees. The tree is a hardy one, nothing affects it, not even parasites or animals. There are eight kinds of rubber tree that grow wild in the country, but the kind known under the name of (*Castilloa elastica*) is the most important and the best, as it is very much sought for its sap and for propagation; an example may be seen in the botanical garden of the preparatory school in this city.

The best soil for rubber cultivation is a deep, rich loam, such as is found along the alluvial banks of the above-mentioned rivers, and in the plains between the sea and the foot of the hills of the coast ranges.

Rubber is essentially a tropical tree; hence it requires a hot and moist climate. The temperature most adapted for its vigorous growth is about 86° Fahr., and the rainfall should be at least 60 to 70 inches per annum, however, salt air does not hurt it. A plot in the vicinity where natural trees are in abundance should be preferred for starting a plantation. Generally under favourable conditions the tree will there will grow faster, thicker, and consequently produce quicker results and a larger amount of juice.

In most cases the trees are found in the above places in sizes from seedlings to 18 and 36 inches in diameter. The tree propagates itself from the seed which drops from the tree, in the months of May and June, to the ground, and there watered and nurtured by the warm rains, which soon follow, the young plant some time after comes up to take its place, amongst the varied tropical life.

If the land set aside for the plantation is covered with trees, these must be felled and the undergrowth cleared only where the young trees are to be planted, providing no side planting is to be made. This work must be performed in the months of March and April, and immediately after, corn should be sown in the open spaces 15 inches apart. This operation is simply done by making a hole in the ground, dropping in a few grains, and covering over with the foot. Should the planter wish to adopt the most economic system, and thereby obtain the greatest return for the money invested, it would be advisable for him to plant besides corn

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cotton, bananas, and coffee. But the attempt to plant Mocha coffee must not be made in elevations less than 1,000 feet above sea-level, neither on plains, nor where the temperature exceeds 85° Fahr.

In the latter case the acreage to be planted must be stubbed and the under brush forked in, or burnt before sowing the corn; then line and stake the plot in rows 15 feet apart. Peons who are posted in this kind of work, especially in coffee planting, have a long cord of rope (24 to 36 varas in length) on which they mark the divisions with inks made from dye-woods of the forests in these sections; the cord is held by two men, and another one marks the holes with his garrocha, leaving a stake in the excavated place every 15 feet in the row. This rule of setting the trees at such distance would ensure larger size and a greater flow of rubber-making fluid. As to shade, if the young plants have been taken from woods under shelter, then natural trees must be left on the plot before clearing to protect them from the strong rays of the sun until they are 10 or 12 feet high and have a prosperous appearance.

This must not be overlooked, as the plant will suffer a great deal from transplanting, even when that operation is done under the best circumstances. But if the young plants are obtained from unsheltered places, or from a nursery established in an open space, they having grown stronger and stouter will require no shelter, and will flourish more rapidly and vigorously than if they had shade.

If the seedlings or cuttings can be obtained within a few miles from a plot, it is advisable even to pay 2 dol. 50 c. per 100 rather than to wait 12 months for the seed to grow in the nursery. When the place, where the supply of young plants or cuttings is to be had is too distant, the expense of transportation would be enormous, and they would suffer to such an extent as to render them unfit and risky for transplanting; the only practical method in that case is to start a nursery. For this purpose a rich sandy loam should be selected. Beds are made 6 feet wide by 15 to 20 feet in length, leaving a walk 2 or 3 feet wide. The seeds are sown 8 inches apart in rows 10 inches distant one from another. This operation is done in the beginning of June or a few days after the rains have started, and by merely marking the ground, about an inch deep, with a stick, dropping the seed in and covering it with vegetable mould.

In 12 months the seedlings are about 24 inches high and ready for transplanting. All weeds and grass must be carefully removed with the hand from the bed as they appear and the earth watered when it seems dry, which is best done in the afternoon.

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In the latter part of May or in the first days of June, when the rainy season commences, the seedlings, young plants, or cuttings are transplanted in the cleared plot between the corn and cotton, 15 feet each way. In removing the seedling or young plant as much of the original soil should be left attached to it, in accordance with the system known as "pilon." The earth must be opened sufficiently to place the plant at the same depth as in the seed bed, and then press down the earth with a spade so as not to leave any hollows around the tree. The plot planted with rubber trees should be inspected every now and then in order to know how they are progressing, and to replace the plants that have withered and died. In July or August it will be necessary to clean the corn, weed the plot, and after harvesting the corn, banana suckers (hijos) can be planted 7 feet apart between the rubber rows.

In Chiapas and Tabasco, cacao trees are set a few feet from the 2 or 3 year old rubber trees, the latter acting as shade for the former, in lieu of the regular madre protector or shade tree. Vanilla trees can be attached to the cacao tree, and by that means, after the lapse of 6 or 7 years, the planter has three or four different crops to harvest. Furthermore, bees could be raised on the place which would act as a medium to fertilise the vanilla flowers and give a handsome profit from honey and beeswax. Again, should the proprietor not want any side planting, cattle, which bring a good income in those sections, may be permitted to graze on the land as soon as the young trees are well rooted and have grown over 20 feet high. After going through the work of transplanting, the only care in the cultivation of the tree, thereafter, is that of keeping the ground free from all weeds and the rank vegetation of the tropics.

As to the expense and cost, the preparation and cultivation of an acre for 5 years, when a tree is ready for production, will require the services of a labourer working 51 days, or its equivalent of 51 labourers each working one day. The work consists of clearing the ground, so as to render it fit for general crops requiring 26 days; collecting the seedlings or cutting 193 trees, 1¾ days; planting same, 2½ days; hoeing and staking 2 days; sowing corn, 1½ days; harvesting same 1¼ day; planting banana suckers, 2½ days establishing nursery, 1 day; and 5 years' cultivation, weeding, &c., 12 days. Estimating each day's labour at 50 c., it is seen that 193 trees on an acre of ground will have cost the planter at the time they are ready for planting less than 12 c. a piece. If a plantation of 100,000 trees is wanted, 517 to 529 acres or 5 caballerias of land will be required, and the total cost at the end of 5 years, exclusive of the first cost of the land, will be 12,000 dol. The wild land will cost from 1 dol. 50c. to 2 dol. per acre in small tracts; supposing that the 5

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caballerias of land cost 1,200 dol., including the expense of drawing up documents, stamps, and recording; administration for 5 years, 5,000 dol.; gathering of the crop will be about 5 c. per tree or 5,000 dol. for 100,000 trees; gathering of banana bunches from ¾ to 1 c. per piece; collecting, drying, and sacking the cacao, 8½ c. per lb.; collecting and curing vanilla beans 5 dol. per 1,000 pods; hence the total expense for the rubber plantation of 100,000 trees will not exceed 25,000 dol. Mexican currency.

Regarding the work of extracting the rubber, one man will tap from 20 to 25 trees per day if the operation is performed carefully and methodically. In most places the tapping is done in the month of May and sometimes again in October, but it is not advisable to repeat the operation as often as that. The process generally consists of making two or three incisions in the lower part of the trunk of the tree and collecting the sap that flows from them in clay vessels placed next to the trunk. Others make a spiral cup from 6 feet above the ground down the trunk of the tree, collect a portion of the juice at the bottom and the rest is allowed to dry in the concavity of the incision and later on is taken off. The best and most advisable system is to make low incisions.

The process can be repeated every year for 25 years or more, especially if the wound is covered with wax or clay after the flow of the sap has ceased. When there is a large quantity of milk gathered, it is dumped into a barrel having a faucet, and a solution of 5 ozs. of chloride or sub-carbonate of sodium in sufficient water to cover the whole mass, which is agitated with a stick every now and then. After the lapse of 24 to 36 hours the water is allowed to run out through the faucet, this operation of washing is done until the rubber becomes white.

About 44 per cent. of rubber remains, from the original amount of milk, after the water and other matters have been eliminated by evaporation.

Trees planted on lands having the soil, climate, and elevation adapted for the culture will produce from 5 to 6 lbs. of juice on the first year that thay are tapped, which amount is equivalent to 2·4 lbs. of pure rubber.

This product will be gradually increased every year for the next 4 or 5 years, and sell for 50 c., per lb. on the plantation. Thus 240,000 lbs., the yield of 100,000 trees at the first year's harvest, will bring the planter 120,000 dol. besides the product obtained from the corn, vanilla, bees, cacao, and bananas raised from side planting. The net profit on the investment, after deducting the entire cost of the land and all expenses up to the first year of harvesting, will be 95,000 dol.,

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and each of the succeeding harvests for 25 or 30 years will bring a steady income of over 100,000 dol.

VI—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

Experimental Morphology.*

In looking at the progress which has been made in the study of plant morphology, I have been as much impressed with the different attitudes of mind toward the subject during the past 150 years as by the advance which has taken place in methods of study, as well as the important acquisitions to botanical science. These different view points have coincided to some extent with distinct periods of time. What Sachs in his "History of Botany" calls "the new morphology" was ushered in near the middle of the present century by Von Mohl's researches in anatomy, by Naegeli's investigations of the cell, and Schleiden's history of the development of the flower. The leading idea in the study of morphology during this period was the inductive method for the purpose of discerning fundamental principles and laws, not simply the establishment of individual facts, which was especially characteristic of the earlier period when the dogma of the constancy of species prevailed.

The work of the "herbalists" had paved the way for the more logical study of plant members, by increasing a knowledge of species, though their work speedily degenerated into mere collections of material and tabulations of species with inadequate descriptions. Later, the advocates of metamorphosis and spiral growth had given an impetus more to the study of nature, though diluted with much poetry and too largely subservient to the imagination, and to pre-conceived or idealistic notions.

But it was reserved for Hoffmeister (1859), whose work followed within three decades of the beginning of this period, to add to the inductive method of research, as now laid down, the comparative method; and extending his researches down into the Pteridophyta and Bryophyta, he not only established for these groups facts in sexuality which Camerarius and Robert Brown had done for the Spermatophyta, but he did it in a far superior manner. He thus laid the foundation for our present conceptions of the comparative morphology of plants. Naegeli's investigations of the cell had emphasized the importance of its study in development, and now the relation of cell growth to the form of plant members was carried to a high degree, and it was shown how dependent the form of the plant was on the growth of the apical cell in the Pteridophyta and Bryophyta, though later researches have modified this view; and how necessary a knowledge of the

*Address delivered before section G. (Botany) of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at DETROIT, by Prof G. F. ATKINSON. Repeated from *Nature*.

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sequence of cell division was to an understanding of homologies and relationships. Thus in developmental and comparative studies, morphology has been placed on a broader and more natural basis, and the homologies and relationships of organs between the lower and higher plants are better understood.

But the growth of comparative morphology has been accompanied by the interpretation of structures usually from a teleological standpoint, and in many cases with the innate propensity of the mind to look at nature in the light of the old idealistic theories of metamorphosis.

I wish now to inquire if we have not recently entered upon a new period in our study of comparative morphology. There are many important questions which comparative studies of development under natural or normal conditions alone, cannot afford a sufficient number of data. We are constantly confronted with the problems of the interpretation of structure and form, not only as to how it stands in relation to structures in other plants, which we deal with in comparative morphology, but the meaning of the structure or form itself, and in relation to the other structures of the organism, in relation to the environment, and in relation to the past. This must be met by an inquiry on our part as to why the structure or form is what it is, and what are the conditions which influence it. This we are accustomed to do by *experiment*, and it begins to appear that our final judgments upon many questions of morphology, especially those which relate to variation, homology, &c., must be formed after the evidence is obtained in this higher trial court, that of *experimental morphology*. While experimental morphology as a designation of one branch of research in plants, or as a distinct and important field of study, is not yet fully taken cognisance of by botanists, we have only to consult our recent literature to find evidence that this great and little-explored field has already been entered upon.

Experimental methods of research in the study of plants have been in vogue for some time, but chiefly by plant physiologists and largely from the standpoint of the physical and chemical activities of the plant, as well as those phases of nutrition and irritability, and of histrologic structure, which relate largely to the life processes of the plant, and in which the physiologist is therefore mainly interested. In recent years there has been a tendency in physiological research to limit the special scope of these investigations to those subjects of a physical and chemical nature. At the same time the study of the structure and behaviour of protoplasm is coming to be regarded as a morphological one, and while experimental methods of research applied to the morphology of protoplasm and the cell is comparatively new, there is already a considerable literature on the subject even upon the side of plant organisms. While certain of the phenomena of irritability and growth are closely related to the physics of plant life, they are

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essentially morphologic ; and it is here especially that we have a voluminous literature based strictly on the inductions gained by experimentation, and for which we have chiefly to thank the physiologist.

If we were to write the full history of experimental morphology in its broadest aspect, we could not omit these important experimental researches on the lower plants in determining the ontogeny of polymorphic species of algæ and fungi which were so ably begun by DeBary, Tulasne, Pringsheim, and others, and carried on by a host of European and American botanists. The tone which these investigations gave to taxonomic botany has been felt in the study of the higher plants, by using to some extent the opportunities at botanic gardens where plants of a group may be grown under similar conditions for comparison, and in the establishment of alpine, subalpine and tropical stations for the purpose of studying the influence of climate on the form and variations of plants, and in studying the effect of varying external conditions.

While experimental morphology in its broadest sense also includes in its domain cellular morphology, and the changes resulting from the directive or taxic forces acccomanying growth, it is not these phases of morphology with which I wish to deal here.

The question is rather that of experimental morphology as applied to the interpretation of the modes of progress followed by members and organs in attaining their morphologic individuality, in the tracing of homologies, in the relation of members associated by antagonistic or correlative forces, the dependence of diversity of function in homologous members on external and interual forces, as well as the causes which determine the character of certain paternal or maternal structures. I shall deal more especially with the experimental evidence touching the relation of the members of the plant which has been represented under the concept of the leaf, as expressed in the metamorphosis theory of the idealistic morphology. The poetry and mystery of the plant world, which was so beautifully set forth in the writings of Goethe and A. Braun, are interesting and entrancing, and poetic communication with Nature is elevating to our ethical and spiritual natures. But fancy or poetry cannot guide us safely to the court of inquiry. We must sometimes lay these instincts aside and deal with Nature in a cold, experimental, calculating spirit.

The beginnings of experimental morphology were made about one century ago, when Knight, celebrated also for the impulse which he gave to experimental physiology, performed some very simple experiments on the potato plant. The underground shoots and tubers had been called roots until Hunter pointed out the fact that they were similar to stems. Knight tested the matter by experiment, and demonstrated that the tubers and underground stems could be made to grow into aerial leafy shoots. This he regarded as indicating a compensation of growth, and he thought,

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further, that a compensation of growth could be shown to exist between the production of tubers and flowers on the potato plant. He reasoned that by the prevention of the development of the tubers the plant might be made to bloom. An early sort of potato was selected, one which rarely or never set flowers, and the shoots were potted with the earth well heaped up into a mound around the end of the shoot. When growth was well started, the soil was washed away from the shoot and the upper part of the roots. The tubers were prevented from growing, and numbers of flowers were formed. This result he also looked upon as indicating a compensation af growth between the flowers and tubers.

While we recognise Knight's experiments as of great importance, yet he erred in his interpretation of the results of this supposed correlation between the tubers and flowers, as Vöehting (1887, 1895) has shown. By repeating Knight's experiment, and also by growing shoots so that tubers would be prevented from developing, while at the same time the roots would be protected, flowers were obtained in the first case, while they were not not in the second; so that the compensation of growth, or correlation of growth, here exists between the vegetative portion of the plant and the flowers, instead of between the production of tubers and and flowers, as Knight supposed.

The theory of metamorphosis as expressed by Goethe and A. Braun, and applied to the leaf, regarded the leaf as a *concept* or *idea*. As Goebel points out, Braun did not look upon any one form as the typical one, which through transformation had developed the various leaf forms; but each one represented a wave in the march of the successive billows of a metamorphosis, the shoot manifesting successive repetitions or renewals of growth each season, presenting in order the "niederblätter, laubblätter, hochblätter, kelchblätter, blumenblätter, staubblätter fruchtblätter." Though it had been since suggested from time to time, as Goebel remarks, that the foliage leaf must be regarded as the original one from which all the other forms had arisen (at that time Goebel did not think this the correct view). No research, he says, had been carried on, not even in a single case, to determine this point. Goebel plainly showed, in the case of *Prunus Padus*, that axillary buds, which under normal conditions were formed one year with several bud scales, could be made by artificial treatment to develop during the first year. This he accomplished by removing all the leaves from small trees in April, and in some cases also cutting away the terminal shoot. In these cases the axillary shoots, instead of developing buds which remained dormant for one year, as in normal cases, at once began to grow and developed well-formed shoots. Instead of the usual number of bud scales, there were first two stipule-like outgrowths, and then fully expanded leaves were formed; so that in this case, he says, the metamorphosis of the leaf to bud scales was prevented

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For this relation of bud scales to foliage leaves, Goebel proposed the term "correlation of growth." In the case of *Vicia faba*, removal of the lamina of the leaf of seedlings, when it was very young, caused the stipules to attain a large size, and to perform the function of the assimilating leaf. He points out that experimentation aids us in interpreting certain morphological phenomena which otherwise might remain obscure. He cites the occasional occurence ("Moquin-Tandon") in the open of enlarged stipules of this plant, which his experiment aids in interpreting. In the case of *Lathyrus aphaca*, the stipules are large and leaf-like, while the part which corresponds to the lamina of the leaf is in the form of a tendril, the correlation process here having brought about the enlargement of the stipules as the lamina of the leaf became adapted to another function. Kronfeld repeated some of Goebel's experiments, obtaining the same results, and extended them to other plants (*Pyrus Malus* and *Pisum sativum*), while negative results attended some other experiments. Hildebrand, in some experiments on seedlings and cuttings, found that external influences affected the leaves, and in some cases, where the cotyledons were cut, foliage leaves appeared in place of the usual bud scales. In *Oxalis rubella*, removal of the foliage leaf, which appears after the cotyledons, caused the first of the bulb scales, which normally appear following the foliage leaf, to expand into a foliage leaf.

In some experiments on the influence of light on the form of the leaves, Goebel has obtained some interesting results. Plants of *Campanula rotundifolia* were used. In this species the lower leaves are petioled and possess broadly-expanded, heart-shaped laminæ, while the upper leaves are narrow and sessile, with intergrading forms. Plants in different stages of growth were placed in a poorly lighted room. Young plants which had only the round leaves, under these conditions continued to develop only this form of leaf, while older plants which had both kinds of leaves when the experiment was started, now developed on the new growth of the shoot the round-leaved form. In the case of plants on which the flower shoot had already developed, side shoots with the round leaves were formed.

Excluding the possibility of other conditions having an influence here, the changes in the leaves have been shown to be due to a varying intensity of light. The situation of the plants in the open favour this view, since the leaves near the ground in these places are not so well lighted as the leaves higher up on the stem. In this case the effect of dampness is not taken into account by the experimenter, and since dampness does have an influence on the size of the leaf, it would seem that it might be at least one of the factors here. An attempt was now made to prevent the development of the round leaves on the young seedlings. For this purpose the plants were kept under the influence of strong and

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continuous lighting. The round leaves were nevertheless developed in the early stage, an indication that this form of the leaf on the seedling has become fixed and is hereditary.

Having found that enclosing the larger cotyledon of *streptocarpus* in a plaster cast so as to check the growth, the smaller and usually fugacious one grew to the size of the large one, provided the experiment was started before the small one was too old. Amputation of the large cotyledon gave the same results.

Other experimenters have directed their attention to the effect of light and gravity on the arrangement of the leaves on the stem, as well as to the effect of light on the length of the petiole and breadth of the lamina. Among these may be mentioned the work of Weisse, Rosenvinge, and others.

Goebel has shown experimentally that dampness is also one of the external influences which can change the character of xerophyllous leaves. A New Zealand species of *Veronica* of xerophyllous habit and scaly appressed leaves, in the seedling stage has spreading leaves with a broad lamina. Older plants can be forced into this condition in which the leaves are expanded, by growing them in a moist vessel. Again, Askehasy and others have shown that dampness or dryness has an important influence in determining the character of the leaves.

The results of the experiments in showing the relation of the leaf to the bud scales, Goebel regards as evidence that the foliage leaf is the original form of the two, and that the bud scale is a modification of it.

Treub conducted some interesting experiments for the purpose of determining the homology of the pappus of the Compositæ.

Gall-insects were employed to stimulate the pappus of *Hieracium umbellatum*, and it was made to grow into a normal calyx with five lobes. A recent letter from Prof. Treub states that he later repeated these experiments with other species of Compositæ with like results, but the work was not published. Key found, in seedlings and cuttings which he experimented with, that while there was still stored food available for the roots and shoots, there was little if any dependence of one upon the other. Hering comes to somewhat different conclusions as a result of his experiments, finding that in some cases there was a slight increase of growth, while in others growth of the one was reciprocally retarded when the other was checked in development. Numerous cases of horticultural practice in pollination of fruits shows that the form and size of the fruit, and of the adjacent parts, as well as the longer or shorter period of existence of the floral envelopes, can be influenced by pollination.

The investigations carried on by Klebs in the conjugation of *Spirogyra* suggest how experimentation of this kind may be utilised to determine questions which in special cases cannot be arrived at easily by direct investigation. If threads of *Spirogyra varians*

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which are ready for conjugation are brought into a 0·5 per cent. solution of agar-agar, in such a way that nearly parallel threads lie at a varying distance in their windings, where they are within certain limits, the conjugation tubes are developed and the zygospores are formed. But where the threads lie at too great a distance for the influences to be exerted, the cells remain sterile, and no conjugation tubes are developed. If now these threads be brought into a nutrient solution, the cells which were compelled to remain sterile grow and develop into new threads, *i.e.*, they take on the vegetative, though they are fully prepared for the sexual function. Strasburger has pointed out that this may be taken as excluding the possibility of there being a reducing division of the chromosomes during the maturing of the sexual cells, a process which takes place in animals, and that the behaviour of *Spirogyra* in this respect agrees with what is known to take place in the higher plants, *viz.* that the reduction process is not one which is concerned in the maturity of the gametes. The same could be said of *Polyphagus*, in which Nowakowski found that before the zygospore was completely formed the protoplasm moved out and formed a new sporangium.

In *Protosiphon botryoides*, Klebs was also able to compel the parthenogenetic development of the motile gametes, and the same thing was observed in the case of the gametes of *Ulothrix*. If we are justified in interpreting this phenomenon as Strasburger suggests, the evidence which Raciborski gives as a result of his experiments with *Basidiobolus ranarum* would support the idea that there is no reducing division in the chromosomes before the formation of the nuclei of the gametes. Raciborski found that the young zygospores of this species, in old nutrient medium where the fusion of the plasma contents had taken place, but before the nuclei had fused, if they were placed in a fresh nutrient medium the fusion of the nuclei was prevented, and vegetative growth took place, forming a hypha which possessed two nuclei—the paternal one and the maternal one. Raciborski interprets Eidam's study of the nuclear division prior to the copulation of the gametes as showing that the reducing division takes place here as in the maturation of the sexual cells of animals and looks upon the premature germination of the zygospore as showing that a paternal and maternal nucleus possesses the full peculiarities of a normal vegetative one. However, we are not justified in claiming a reducing division for the nuclei preceding the formation of the gametes in *Basidiobolus* from the work of Eidam, since he was not able to obtain sufficiently clear figures of the division to determine definitely how many divisions took place, to say nothing of the lack of definite information as to the number of chromosomes. Fairchild has recently studied more carefully the nuclear division, but, on account of the large number of the chromosomes, was not able to determine whether a reduction takes place. He points out, as others have

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done, the similarity in the process of the formation of the conjugating cells of *Basidiobolus* and Mougeotia among the Mesocarpeæ, and to these there might be added the case of Sirogonium in which the paternal cell just prior to copulation undergoes division. The division of the copulation cells in *Basidiobolus Mougeotia, Sirogonium,* &c, suggest at least some sort of preparatory act; but whether this is for the purpose of a quantitative reduction of the kinoplasm, as Strasburger thinks sometimes takes place, or is a real reduction in the number of the chromosomes, must be determined by further study, so that the bearings of these experiments on the question of a reducing division must for the time be held in reserve.

One of the very interesting fields for experimental investigation is that upon the correlation processes which govern morphology of the sporophylls (stamens and pistils) of the Spermatophyta. One of the controlling influences seems to be that of nutrition, and in this respect there is some comparison to be made with the correlative processes which govern the determination of sex in plants. Among the ferns and some others of the Pteridophyta a number of experiments have been carried on by Prantl, Bauke, Heim, Buchtien and others to determine the conditions which influence the development of antheridia and archegonia. Prantl found that on the prothallia of the ferns grown in solutions lacking nitrogen there was no meristem, and consequently no archegonia, while antheridia were developed; but if the prothallia were changed to solution containing nitrogen, meristem and archegonia were developed. All the experiments agree in respect to nutrition; with scanty nutrition antheridia only were developed, while with abundant nutriment archegonia were also developed. Heim studied the influence of light, and found that fern prothallia grow best with light of 20 to 25 per cent. Exclusion of the ultra-violet rays does not affect the development of the sexual organs. He argues from this that the ultra-violet rays are not concerned in the elaboration of the material for flower production, as Sachs has suggested. In yellow light the prothallia grew little in breadth; they also grew upward, so that few of the rhizoids could reach the substratum. Antheridia were here very numerous. After seven months these prothallia were changed to normal light and in four months afterwards archegonia were developed.

Among the algæ Klebs has experimented especially with *Vaucheria*, such species as *V. repens* and *V. ornithocephala*, where the antheridia and oogonia are developed near each other on the same thread. With weak light, especially artificial light, the oogonium begins first to degenerate. He never succeeded in suppressing the antheridia and at the same time to produce oogonia.

High temperature, low air pressure or weak light, tend to suppress the oogonia, and at the same time the antheridia may increase so that the number in a group is quite large, while the

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oogonium degenerates or develops vegetatively. Klebs concludes from his experiments that the causes which lie at the bottom of the origin of sex in *Vaucheria*, as in other organisms, are shrouded in the deepest mystery.

In the higher plants a number of experiments have been carried on for the purpose of learning the conditions which govern the production of staminate and pistillate flowers, or in other words the two kinds of sporophylls. From numerous empirical observations on dicœcious Spermatophyta, the inference has generally been drawn that nutrition bears an important relation to the development of the staminate and pistillate flowers; that scanty nutrition produces a preponderance of staminate plants, while an abundance of nutrition produces a preponderance of pistillate plants. For a period covering three decades several investigators have dealt with this question experimentally, notably K. Muller, Haberlandt and Hoffmann. These experiments in general give some support to the inferences from observation, yet the results indicate that other influences are also at work, for the ratios of preponderance either way are not large enough to argue for this influence alone. In a majority of cases thick sowings, which in reality correspond to scanty nutrition, tend to produce staminate plants; while thin sowings tend to produce pistillate plants. In the case of the hemp (*Cannabis sativa*), Hoffmann found that these conditions had practically no influence. He suggests that the character of each may have been fixed during the development of the seed, or even that it may be due to late or early fecundation.

In monœcious plants it has often been observed that pistillate flowers change to staminate ones and *vice versâ*, and in dicœcious plants pistillate ones sometimes are observed to change to staminate ones (the hemp for example, see Nagel, 1879). K. Muller states that by scanty nutrition the pistillate flowers of *Zea Mays* can be reduced to staminate ones.

Among the pines what are called androgynous cones have in some instances been observed. In *Pinus rigida* and *P. Thunbergii*, for example, they occur (Masters). Natsuda has described in the case of *Pinus densiflora* of Japan, pistillate and androgynous flowers which developed in place of the staminate flowers, and conversely staminate and androgynous flowers in place of pistillate ones. Fujii has observed that where the pistillate or androgynous flowers of *Pinus densiflora* occur in place of the staminate ones, they are usually limited to the long shoots which are developed from the short ones of the previous year. The proximity of those transformed short shoots (Kurztrieb) to injuries of the long ones, suggested that the cutting away of the long ones might induce the short ones to develop into long ones, and the flowers which were in the position for staminate ones to becomes pistillate.

Fujii says, "In fact, the injuries producing such effects are frequently given by Japanese gardeners to the shoots of the year

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of *Pinus densiflora* in their operations of annual pollarding. But the 'Langtrieb' which is transformed from a 'Kurztrieb' of the last year does not necessarily bear female or hermaphrodite flowers in the positions of male flowers." To determine the influence of pollarding of the shoots he carried on experiments on this pine in the spring of 1895. He pollarded the shoots, so that, as he terms it, to induce the nourishment to be employed in the development of the flowers and short shoots near the seat of injury. In other cases one or two shoots were preserved while all the adjacent shoots of last year's growth at the top of the branch were removed, and, further, both of these processes were combined. Out of the forty-five branches experimented on, and on which there were no signs of previous injury, there were nine pistillate or androgynous flowers in place of staminate ones, in twenty-one branches with signs of previous injury, five were transformed, while in 2,283 not experimented on, and with no signs of previous injury, only seven were transformed. Such abnormal flowers, then, are due largely to the injuries upon the adjacent shoots, and Fujii thinks, largely to the increased amount of nourishment which is conveyed to them as a result of this.

From the experiments thus far conducted upon the determination of sex in plants or upon the determination of staminate or pistillate members of the flower, nutrition has at least some influence in building up the nourishing tissue for the two different organs or members. This can in part be explained on the ground that antheridia and staminate members of the plant are more or less short-lived in comparison with the archegonia and pistillate members, the latter requiring more bulk of tissue to serve the purpose of protection and nourishment to the egg and embryo. It is thus evident that while some progress has been made in the study of this question, we are far from a solution of it. Experiment has proceeded largely from a single standpoint, *viz.*, that of the influence of nutrition. Other factors should be taken into consideration, for there are evidently other external influences and internal forces which play an important *rôle*, as well as certain correlation processes perhaps connected with the osmotic activities of the cell sap.

The relation of the parts of the flower to the foliage leaves is a subject which has from time to time called forth discussion. That they are but modifications of the foliage leaf, or constituents of the leaf concept, is the contention of the metamorphosis theory, and that the so called sporophylls are modified foliage leaves is accepted with little hesitation by nearly all botanists, though it would be very difficult, it seems to me, for any one to present any very strong argument from a phylogenetic standpoint in favour of the foliage leaf being the primary form in its evolution on the sporophyte and that the sporophyll is a modern adaptation of the foliage leaf. Numerous cases are known of

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intermediate forms between sporophylls and foliage leaves both in the Spermatophyta and Pteridophyta. These are sometimes regarded as showing reversion, or indicating atavism, or in the case of some of the ferns, as being contracted and partially fertile conditions of the foliage leaf. There has been a great deal of speculation regarding these interesting abnormal forms, but very little experimentation to determine the causes or conditions which govern the processes.

In 1894 I succeeded in producing a large series of these intermediate forms in the sensitive fern (*Onoclea sensibilis*). The experiments were carried on at the time for the especial purpose of determining whether in this species the partially developed sporophyll could be made to change to a foliage leaf, and yet possess characters which would identify it as a transformed sporophyll. The experiments were carried on where there were a large number of the fern plants. When the first foliage leaves were about 25 cm. high, they were cut away (about the middle of May). The second crop of foliage leaves was also cut away when they were about the same height during the month of June. During July, at the time that the uninjured ferns were developing the normal sporophylls, those which were experimented upon presented a large series of gradations between the normal sporophyll and fully expanded foliage leaves. Among these examples there are all intermediate stages from sporophylls which show very slight expansions of the distal portion of the sporophyll, and the distal portions of the pinnæ, until we reach forms which it is very difficult to distinguish from the normal foliage leaf. Accompanying these changes are all stages in the sterilisation of the sporangia (and the formation of prothalloid growths), on the more broadly expanded sporophylls there being only faint evidences of the indusia.

The following year (1895) similar experiments were carried on with the ostrich fern (*Onoclea struthiopteris*), and similar results were obtained. At the time that these experiments were conducted, I was unaware of the experiments performed by Goebel on the ostrich fern. The results he reached were the same; the sporophyll was more or less completely transformed to a foliage leaf. Goebel regards this as the result of the correlation process, and looks upon it as indicating that the sporophyll is a transformed foliage leaf, and that the experiment proves the reality here of the modification which was suggested in the theory of metamorphosis, and thus the foliage leaf is looked upon by him as the primary form. Another interpretation has been given to those results, *viz.* that they strengthen the view that the sporophyll, from a phylogenetic standpoint, is primary, while the foliage leaf is secondary. What one interprets as a reversion, another regards as indicating a mode of progress in the sterilisation of potentiality, sporogenous tissue, and its conversion into

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assimilatory tissue. It is perhaps rather to be explained by the adaptive equipoise of the correlative process existing between the vegetative and fruiting portions of the plant which is inherited from earlier times. Rather when spore-production appears on the sporophyte could this process be looked upon as a reversion to the primary office of the sporophyte, so that in spore-production of the higher plants we may have a constantly recurring reversion to a process which in the remote past was the sole function of this phase of the plant. In this way might be explained those cases where sporangia occur on the normal foliage leaf of *Botrychium*, and some peculiar cases which I have observed in *Osmunda cinnamomea*. In some of the examples of this species it would appear that growth of the leaf was marked by three different periods even after the fundament was outlined; the first, a vegetative; second, a spore-producing; and third. a vegetative again; for the basal portions of the leaf are expanded, the middle portions spore-bearing, the passage into the middle portions being gradual, so that many sporangia are on margins of quite well-developed pinnæ. These gradations of the basal part of the leaf, and their relation to the expanded vegetative basal portion, showing that the transition here has been from partially formed foliage leaf to sporophyll after the fundament was established, and later the increments of the vegetative part from the middle towards the terminal portion, shown by the more and more expanded condition of the lamina and decreasing sporangia, indicate that vegetative forces are again in the ascendency. This suggests how unstable is the poise between the vegetative leaf and sporophyll in structure and function in the case of this species.

For two successive years I have endeavoured by experiment to produce this transformation in *Osmunda cinnamomea*, but thus far without sufficiently marked results. The stem of the plant is stout, and this, together with the bases of the leaves closely overlapping, contain considerable amounts of stored nutriment which make it difficult to produce the results by simply cutting off the foliage leaves. The fact that these transformations are known to occur where fire has overspread the ground, and, as I have observed, where the logging in the woods seriously injured the stools of the plant, it would seem that deeper-seated injuries than the mere removal of foliage leaves would be required to produce the transformation in this species. It may be that such injury as results from fire or the severe crushing of the stools of the plant would be sufficient to disturb the equilibrium which existed at the time, that the action of the correlative forces is changed thereby, and there would be a tendency for the partially developed foliage leaves to form sporangia, then when growth has proceeded for a time this balance is again changed.

The theory that the foliage leaves of the sporophyte have been derived by a process of sterilisation, and that the transformation of

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sporophylls to foliage leaves, in an individual, indicates the mode of progress in this sterilisation, does not necessarily involve the idea that the sporophyll of any of the ferns, as they now exist, was the primary form of the leaf in that species ; and that by sterilisation, of some of the sporophylls, the present dimorphic form of the leaves was brought about. The process of the evolution of the leaf has probably been a gradual one, and extends back to some ancestral form now totally unknown. One might differ from Prof. Bower; the examples selected by him to illustrate the course of progress from a simple and slightly differentiated sporophyte to that exhibited in the various groups of the Pteridophyta. But it seems to me that he is right in so far as his contention for the evolution of vegetative and assimilatory members of the sporophyte, can be illustrated by a comparison of the different degrees of complexity represented by it in different groups and, that this illustrates the mode of progress, as he terms it, in the sterilisation of potential sporogenous tissue.

On this point it appears that Prof. Bower has been justly criticised. The forms selected to illustrate his theory were chosen not to represent ancestral forms, or direct phylogenetic lines, but solely for the purpose of illustrating the gradual transference of spore-bearing tissue from a central to a peripheral position, and the gradual eruption and separation of spore-bearing areas, with the final sterilisation of some of these outgrowths.

To maintain that in phylogeny the sporophyll is a transformed foliage leaf, would necessitate the predication of ancestral plants with only foliage leaves, and that in the case of these plants the vegetative condition of the sporophyte was the primary one, spore production being a later developed function. Of the forms below the Pteridophyta, so far as our present evidence goes, the sporophyte originated through what Bower calls the gradual elaboration of the zygote. All through the Bryophyta wherever a sporophyte is developed, spore production constantly recurs in each cycle of the development, and yet there is no indication of any foliage organs on the sporophyte. The simplest forms of the sporophyte contain no assimilatory tissue, but in the more complex forms assimilatory tissue is developed to some extent, showing that the correlative forces which formerly were so balanced as to confine the vegetative growth to the gamophyte and fruiting to the sporophyte, are later changing so that vegetative growth and assimilation are being transferred to the sporophyte, while the latter still retains the function of spore production, though postponed in the ontogeny of the plant.

If we cannot accept some such theory for the origin of sporophylls and foliage leaves by gradual changes in potential sporogenous tissue, somewhat on the lines indicated by Bower, it seems to me it would be necessary, as already suggested, to

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predicate an ancestral form for the Pteridophyta in which spore production was absent. That is, spore production in the sporophyte of ancestral forms of the Pteridophyta may never have existed in the early period of its evolution, and spore production may have been a later development. But this, judging from the evidence which we have, is improbable, since the gametophyte alone would then be concerned in transmitting hereditary characters, unless the sporophyte through a long period developed the gametophyte stage through apospory. Bower says, in taking issue with Goebel's statement that the experiments on *Onoclea* prove the sporophyll to be a transformed foliage leaf: "I assert on the other hand, that this is not proved, and that a good case could be made out for priority of the sporophyte; in which event the conclusion would need to be inverted, the foliage leaf would be looked upon as a sterilised sporophyll. This would be perfectly consistent with the correlation demonstrated by Prof. Goebel's experiments, as also with the intercalation of a vegetative phase between the zygote and the production of spores." In another place he says: "To me whether we take such simple cases as the Lycopods or the more complex case of the Filicineæ the sporangium is not a gift showered by a bountiful Providence upon pre-existent foliage leaves: the sporangium, like other parts, must be looked upon from the point of view of descent; its production in the individual or in the race may be deferred, owing to the intercalation of a vegetative phase, as above explained; while, in certain cases at least, we probably see in the foliage leaf the result of the sterilisation of sporophylls. If this be so, much may be then said in favour of the view that the appearance of sporangia upon the later formed leaves of the individual is a reversion to a more ancient type rather than a metamorphosis of a progressive order."

As I have endeavoured to point out in another place, if a disturbance of these correlative processes results in the transference of sporophyllary organs to vegetative ones on the sporophyte, why should there not be a similar influence brought to bear on the sporophyte, when the same function resides solely in the gametophyte, and a disturbing element of this kind is introduced? To me there are convicing grounds for believing that this influence was a very potent—though not the only—one in the early evolution of sporophytic assimilatory organs. By this I do not mean that in the Bryophyta, for example, injury to the gametophyte would now produce distinct vegetative organs on the sporophyte, which would tend to make it independent of the gametophyte. But that in the bryophyte-like ancestors of the pteridophytes an influence of this kind did actually take place, appears to me reasonable.

"In the gradual passage from an aquatic life, for which the gametophyte was better suited, to a terrestrial existence for which

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it was unadapted, a disturbance of the correlative processes was introduced. This would not only assist in the sterilisation of some of the sporogenous tissue, which was taking place, but there would also be a tendency to force this function on some of the sterilised portions of the sporophyte, and to expand them into organs better adapted to this office. As eruptions in the mass of sporogenous tissue took place, and sporophylls were evolved, this would be accompanied by the transference of the assimilatory function of the gametophyte to some of these sporophylls."

Because sporophytic vegetation is more suited to dry land conditions than the gametophytic vegetation, it has come to be the dominating feature of land areas. Because the sporophyte in the Pteridophyta and Spermatophyta leads an independent existence from the gametophyte, it must possess assimilatory tissue of its own, and this is necessarily developed first in the ontogeny; but it does not necessarily follow, therefore, that the foliage leaf was the primary organ in the phylogeny of the sporophyte. The provision for the development of a large number of spores in the thallophytes, so that many may perish and still some remain to prepetuate the race, is laid hold on by the bryophytes, where the mass of spore-bearing cells increases and becomes more stable, for purposes of the greatest importance. Instead of perishing, some of the sporogenous tissue forms protecting envelopes, then supporting and conducting tissue, and finally in the pteridophytes and spermatophytes nutritive and assimilatory structures are developed. Nature is prodigal in the production of initial elementary structures and organs. But while making abundant provision for the life of the organism through the favoured few, she has learned to turn an increasing number of the unfavoured ones to good account. Acted upon by external agents and by internal forces, and a changing environment, advance is made, step by step, to higher, more stable, and prolonged periods.

While we have not yet solved any one of these problems, the results of experimental morphology are sufficient to indicate the great importance of the subject and the need of fuller data from a much larger number of plants. If thus far the results of experiments have not been in all cases sufficient to overthrow the previous notion entertained touching the subjects involved, they at least show that there are good grounds for new thoughts and new interpretations or for the amendment of the existing theories. While there is not time for detailing even briefly another line of experiment, *viz.* that upon leaf arrangement, I might simply call attention to the importance of the experiment conducted by Schumann and Weisse from the standpoint of Schwendener's mechanical theory of leaf arrangement. Weisse shows that the validity of the so-called theory of the spiral arrangement of the leaves on the axis may be questioned, and that there are good grounds for the opening of the discussion again. It seems to me, therefore, that the final

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judgment upon either side of all these questions cannot now be given. It is for the purpose of bringing fresh to the minds of the working botanists the importance of the experimental method in dealing with these problems of nature that this discussion is presented as a short contribution to the subject of experimental morphology of plants.

British Woods and Forests.

The annual report of the office of Woods and Forests has just been issued, and is more up to date than the average Blue Book of a Government Department. The Commissioners have come to the conclusion that the system of forest management which was in vogue in State woodlands, when the object was to grow oak for the Royal Navy, is no longer applicable now that for some thirty years ships of war have been built of steel backed by teak and other hard foreign woods. Perhaps it is a little remarkable that the present Commissioners, who are quite *novi homines*, at the Office of Woods, should have been left to make this discovery. Better late than never, however, and we heartily welcome the appointment of Mr. Hill to see how the Governmet forests can be made to pay a good profit. Mr. Hill has had great experience in the eminently practical Forest Department of India, and it is probable that he will be able to recommend the intermixture of the oak woods with other sorts of timber. The demand for all timber has so much improved of the last eighteen months, that the Office of Woods show very satisfactory returns; but this demand is fluctuating, and of course the Government had no advantages in the open market over any other grower. We foresee that the question of beauty will not be entirely forgotten in any gradual re-planting of the forests belonging to the State.—*The Graphic.*

Pine Wood at the Cape.

GENADENDAL REVISITED.

By the Conservtor or Forests.

It is worth a long journey to Genadendal to witness the natural regeneration of the cluster-pine. Between 1825 and

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1830, *i. e.*, about seventy years ago, a small area at the foot of the mountain near the picturesque old church-yard was trenched and sown with cluster-pine seed. None of these seventy-year-old pines now remain, though one or two of their broad stems can still be identified. From these trees the cluster-pine has spread, self-sown, up the rocky face of the mountain and into the rugged Genadendal valley, presenting most picturesque and remarkable effects: now subduing the moorland veld, and anon covering with ample humus the bare rocks. No sight has so impressed me since my first view of Table Mountain from a Wynberg window at daybreak on a serene winter's morning. The Genadendal Valley runs into the heart of the highlands for four or five miles. To the east rises the Genadendal Mountain, 5,000 feet high. From this valley issues the stream that waters the station, and some distance upon both sides of the water, extend these natural woods of cluster-pine, unsurpassed in their sylvan beauty and in their lesson of potential forest wealth by anything else at a distance from Table Mountain. Mr. Vedemann pointed out to me a spot on the east side of the valley where, when he left Genadendal in 1881, there was only a scattered growth of pine which was traversed by a veld fire five years afterwards, in 1886. Nevertheless the whole of this area is now covered with a sufficient stock of young self-sown pine, with larger pines scattered among them, showing by their blackened stems where the fire has passed. On the west side of the valley the pine woods are intersected by winding paths. It is necessary from time to time to clear these paths of the young pines, which would otherwise soon obliterate them. Wherever any opening lets in a little light, young pines make their appearance, exactly as in a Scotch-pine forest in Europe.

I saw a coupe of about three acres clean cut two years ago. It is already nearly completely re-stocked, and by next season the seed from the adjoining old trees will have completed the natural regeneration. An adjoining coupe, also clean-cut four years ago, is now completely re-stocked with a dense growth of young pine, averaging ten or so to the square foot. On the Mission lands near the pine forest, cluster-pine spreads everywhere. I was shown a brick kiln, where the bricks for the new church were burnt five years ago, now covered with a growth of young pines. The adjoining churchyard was cleaned of young pines three years ago. It is now covered with a dense pine regrowth, and must be again cleared. Cluster-pine is indeed invasive everywhere and on every soil—clay, loam, rock, or sand. The process by which the cluster-pine conquers the tenacious vegetation of the veld and spreads up the mountain in spite of the fires seems to be something like this. The

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old pine trees bear heavy masses of cones, and the light-winged seed is shed abundantly and flies far. Some of this germinates on rocky places where there is no veld vegetation to feed the fires. One can see single trees and little patches of pines spreading up the mountain in this way. Such trees escape the veld fires which killed off the better trees on better ground. It is in this way that the cedar has maintained itself on the Cedarberg. Similar patches of pine on rock may be observed on certain spots on the slopes of Table Mountain. Where the forest tree is sufficiently powerful, the sequel is simply a question of time. The trees on the rocky ground grow up, and by their shade and leaf droppings kill the veld around. Then on the clean fire-safe soil spring up other pines in ever-widening circles.

Fire.

There have been several scares of fire, and small areas burnt since 1830, but no severe fires, nor any that have inflicted permanent injury to the woods. As in Gascony, the usual sequence of a fire is a dense, regular regrowth of young pines. The only exception I saw to this rule was where the neighbouring pines were too young to shed seed. Mr. Vedemann considers that even the seed of young pines has not the same germinative power as that of old trees. Anyhow, it would seem to be a wise precaution, in the regular treatment of cluster-pine forest, to make the coupes long, narrow, and non-consecutive. The small and irregular coupes on the slopes of Table Mountain serve the same end. The veld at Genadendal is usually burnt every second year, and precautions are taken to prevent veld fires spreading to the pine woods. Should fire get in, it is only young pines in the thicket stage that are much endangered, and they seem, at Genadendal, to soon shed their lower branches and become clean and safe. Fire runs along the pine-needles on the ground, but such fires are easily put out. Old trees with their thick bark are not damaged by ordinary fires. The low branching trees of sparse forest suffer the most. Fire runs up their foliage, which, says Mr. Vedemann, burns in summer like pitch. Some of the small, irregular plantations on private lands at Genadendal have suffered severely from fire.

Advance Growth.

As in Gascony, the advance growth is worthless. It seems to be more abundant than in the Cape Peninsula, but is invariably twisted, drawn, and weak. Nevertheless, a fact I noticed in one place seems to show that the cluster-pine in South Africa is not quite such a strong light-demander as in Europe. Under an oak plantation where there would be a good deal of light

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in winter, with the leaves off, I noticed an under-growth of cluster-pine, with the stems straight and perhaps fit for a future stock if the oak were removed. Undoubtedly, says Mr. Vedemann, if the pine be left to itself here it will pierce, dominate, and kill the oak.

Growth.

The cluster-pine at Genadendal has a clean, straight, robust growth that is unsurpassed by the best trees in the Cape Peninsula. Trees as straight as a mast and 70 feet to the first branch are not uncommon, especially in that part of the forest where the want of a bridge has prevented over-thinning. I measured one mast-like stem as it lay on the ground. It had been cut off at 102 feet, and had probably a total height of 10 or 15 feet more, say 114 feet total height. Among the trees growing on bare rock an occasional one sometimes dies, but its place is immediately filled by others. There was no appearance of disease of any sort, the trees being uniformly clean and healthy as in the Cape Peninsula.

Treatment.

Clean cutting is practised except where it is necessary to preserve the trees for shelter. There jardinage or selection felling is followed. Irregular thinnings are also allowed; (*a*) Of choice trees; (*b*) of crooked or badly grown trees. Under (*a*) picked trees are taken for scaffolding, bridging, or any special purpose. The practice is justified on grounds of expediency and economy, looking at the smallness of the pine forest and the irregular demand. But it does not improve the stock which is everywhere over-thinned and too open, except where the want of a bridge has hindered the extraction of timber. The clean-cutting in small coupes gives excellent results, and is evidently the right treatment. The thinnings should be curtailed or suspended and obviously under (*a*) restricted as far as may be, if the forest is to be brought to its best development.

Utilisation of Timber.

At Genadendal cluster-pine timber is used for all the purposes where imported pine is employed in Cape Town, except for fine carpentry. In all the various buildings, and there are some large substantial houses, a church, and a mill of three stories, I saw nothing but cluster-pine. It is cluster-pine everywhere here, as it is cedar everywhere in the farms of the Cedarberg country. Cluster-pine answers well for floors, joists, and beams; but for fine carpentry, such as

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windows, its hard, resinous nature makes it difficult to work. I noticed that woodwork left unpainted or not oiled becomes worm-eaten, even indoors. But waxed flooring boards showed no decay, and though sawn very wide—up to 18 inches wide—do not warp. I saw nothing but cluster-pine flooring, but I understand that imported flooring boards have occasionally been used.

The clusterpine woods at Genadendal are too open to produce the best timber, especially when young. This is seen not only in the forest, but in the structure of the timber when cut. Some sections I examined showed two rings per inch of radius at the centre, and twenty rings near the bark! It is easy for the forester to improve on wood of this coarse and uneven texture. By better regulated trimmings he can produce wood that will be fine in the grain, of even texture, and free from knots.

When used out of doors cluster-pine is protected at Genadendal with carbolineum. Water-seasoned blue-gum wood is similarly protected with carbolineum. This is made in Stuttgart and costs in Germany about 2s. the gallon. Imported direct it costs about 4s. the gallon in Genadendal. it is said that there is unfortunately a high duty on this useful material. At Genadendal the carbolineum is applied hot to the dry wood. It fills up all the cracks and goes deep enough into the wood to form a really protective surface.

For such a purpose as barrows, cluster-pine is held to be inferior to poplar. Cluster-pine is a hard strong wood, but not elastic like poplar. When cluster-pine gives way it breaks off short.

At Genadendal the cluster-pine timber is brought to the side of the road and there sold to the farmers, who come with their wagons and fetch it away. Prices are low. A sound straight log 9 inches diameter and 22 feet long would be sold for 3s. Scaffold poles 4 inches mean diameter and 36 feet long sell for 9d. I measured a round log as it lay on the ground, 90 feet in length. I was told it was for a farmer who wants to cut planks 14 inches by 23 feet. I saw a pile of sawn wood—2-inch planks and quartering—well stacked and ventilated. It is excellent wood, but somewhat knotty, owing to the open condition of the forest. Mr. Vedemann thinks cluster-pine less liable to get worm-eaten than yellow wood. There is little fear of worms, he adds if the wood be cut in season. The practice at Genadendal is to cut cluster-pine all the year round, but always when the moon is down. On this point Mr. Vedemann, the missionary, is emphatic, and says he has amply proved by experience that wood felled when the moon is down is better to work and lasts better—is less liable to get worm-eaten. He would prefer to cut also in winter,

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but farmers come to buy at all seasons of the year, and he has no arrangements for storing.

CLUSTER-PINE IN THE SOUTH.

The extended planting of cluster-pine in the southern and south-western districts has long been advocated by the Forest Department. All along the better watered south-western coast districts, it exists as a hardy forest tree, requiring for its propagation only that the ground be ploughed or otherwise broken up and sown at the proper season, *i.e.*, with the first winter rains. No plantations in South Africa, and few in other parts of the world, can be laid down so cheaply and so easily. It is as simple as sowing a field of wheat or oats. A good bushel of seed, or about forty pounds to the acre, is required. The seed costs from 3d. to 4d. a lb., *i.e.*, it can be obtained at this price from Government. It is imported in large quantities (from eight to ten tons yearly) by the Forest Department for Government use, and in order to assist tree-planting generally. Such as can be procured from local sources is collected, but local seed costs 6d. per lb., while it can be imported from Italy and France at from 3d. to 4d. per lb.

The results at Genadendal are the demonstration of the practical utility of what has been done to propagate cluster-pine. After many years' trial and experience in the Government plantation, with all the pines in the world likely to come into competition with it, nothing, so far, has been obtained to seriously compete in the south-west with cluster-pine, the tree that in transforming the fever-stricken marshes of Gascony has literally given a fertile province to France; and the tree which, even among all the noble conifers of California is preferred there for re-planting purposes.

Those who may wish to see the cluster-pine growing near Cape Town should visit the Government plantations at Uitvlugt and Tokai, or the wind-swept slopes of the mountain above Woodstock. At Ceres-road it may be seen shooting sturdily where simply sown on a poor gravelly ridge. On the barren sour veld moorland at Knysna, where so little else will grow, cluster-pine can be seen flourishing marvellously. In the Government plantations at Concordia it has supplanted all other trees.

A GREAT FUTURE.

The country must have pine plantations. Dr. Schlich, in a recent able paper read before the Imperial Institute, has shown how the pine timber supplies of the world are reaching a visible termination. The present importation of pine wood

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to South Africa must considerably exceed in value a quarter of a million pounds sterling. During 1896 the quantity of pine wood and wood of that class entered at the ports of Cape Colony amounted to 4,967 cubic feet, valued at £215,693. It is certain that cluster-pine, properly grown in close plantations (and this is a very important and imperative proviso) would supply the greater part of the present demand for pine wood. At present we have the pick of the pine forests of the world at prices so low that they cannot last long. In the future there is a certain market for Colonial pine wood, And, just as the the worthy missionaries at Genadendal are now thanking the foresight of their predecessors in planting the cluster-pine seventy years ago, so in another forty years will the Colonist of the future be indebted to those who plant cluster-pine now.

Speaking of cluster-pine plantations, it was shown in my last annual report that for every £1 spent now the country should reap an annual revenue of £1 in thirty-five or forty years. And, perhaps even better than this, the quarter of a million pounds sterling or more, now paid yearly to the foreigner. It has been computed that nine-tenths of all the wood used in the world is pine, or wood of that class.—*Cape Times.*

D. E. HUTCHINS.

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VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

December 3rd, 1897.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—The deliveries for the eleven months this year have been 16,925 loads against 20,105 loads in the same period of 1896, and for November this year, 1,789 loads against 1,808 loads in November. 1896. There has been distinct improvement in the tone of the market during the month. Sellers have made progress with the disposal of floating cargoes at their full rates, and are now holding out for better ones

ROSEWCOD. East India—is asked for, and good lots would find ready buyers.—

SATINWOOD. EAST INDIA.—Is of slow sale and stock sufficient.

EBONY. EAST INDIA.—Is in fair demand and the parcel recently landed was soon placed.

PRICE CURRENT.

Indian teak	per load	£10 10s.	to	£15 10s.
Rosewood	,, ton	£8	to	£10
Satinwood	,, sup. foot.	5d.	to	12d.
Ebony	,, ton	£7	to	£8

Denny, Mott & Dickson's Report.

LONDON, 1ST DECEMBER, 1897.

TEAK.—The landings in the Docks in London during November were 1,414 loads as against 3,457 loads for the corresponding month of last year. The deliveries from Docks to consumers were 1,745 loads, as against 1,861 loads for November, 1896 ; the Dock stocks analyse as follows :—

Logs	9,581 loads,	as against	9,313 loads	at the same	date	last year.
Planks	3,063 ,,	,,	2,027 ,,	,,	,,	,,
Blocks	15 ,,	,,	151 ,,	,,	,,	,,
Total ...	12,659 loads		11,491 loads	,,	,,	,,

The demand for the rolling stock industry has been the chief outlet for teak, the shipbuilding demand still being in abeyance. Orders for ships and material will be let loose immediately the Engineers' strike is settled, and prices may be expected to harden

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in consequence. The season's supplies in Bangkok have now been definitely ascertained as being very inadequate and large mills are being closed down in consequence.

It is therefore to be feared that the Burmah shippers will take advantage of the necessarily diminished competition from Bangkok to put up their value for good wood, but shippers of inferior Burmah timber have to face the fact that bad shipments have so accumulated on this side as to threaten a disastrous loss on the first cost of stuff utterly unsuited for the purposes for which teak is required in Europe. Business is reported to be most active in India, and teak which can be utilized for domestic purposes there should be kept there, and not forwarded at heavy cost to Europe where it is practically useless for the first class constructive work which almost exclusively is the source of demand for so expensive a wood as teak.

MARKET RATES OF PRODUCE.

Tropical Agriculturist, December, 1897.

Cardamoms		per lb.	3s. 6d.	to	4s.
Croton seeds		per cwt.	50s.	to	60s.
Cutch		„	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic,	Madras	per „	30s.	to	35s.
Gum Kino	„	„	12s. 6d.	to	15s.
Indiarubber,	Assam	per lb.	1s. 9d.	to	2s. 8d.
„	Burma	„	1s. 4d.	to	2s. 6d.
Myrabolams,	Madras	per cwt.	3s. 9d.	to	5s. 5d.
„	Bombay	„	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
„	Jubbulpore	„	4s.	to	7s.
„	Bengal	„	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica,		„	7s.	to	7s. 6d.
Oil, Lemon Grass		per lb.	4d.		
Sandalwood, logs		per ton.	£30	to	£50
„	chips	„	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood,		„	£4.	to	£5.
Seed lac		per cwt.	40s.	to	80s.
Tamarinds		„	4s.	to	6s.

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AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL.

EDITED BY

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THE
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Note on the Forest School Tour in Oudh.

By F. Gleadow.

Arrangement of the Tour—Students travel with concession tickets, which have to be applied for in good time, say early in December, from the Traffic Superintendents of the various lines travelled over. These tickets do not allow holders to travel by mail or (generally) passenger trains, and as each Company does its best by inconvenient timing and delays, to keep passengers from using rival lines, the result is vexation and loss of time. The Mail from Saharanpore reaches Bareilly at 6-39, but the train that ought to correspond is sent off at 5-10, and the unfortunate passengers have to wait till 16-33. The Mixed reaches Bareilly at 1-35 a. m. and catches the 5-10 above mentioned. The Passenger reaches Bareilly at 18-24, but naturally fails to catch the 16-33 and travellers have to stay the night and go by the 5-10. On the return journey from Mailani the Mail is convenient enough, but the Mixed gets into Bareilly at 9-20 leaving passengers the option of taking the 18-27, the same day, or the 6-50 the day after. At Mailani there is another change, as Sonaripur is the terminus of the Dudwa Branch. On our arrival, the Branch, not used in the rains, was not yet open, but exertions had been made to get it open, and the line having been duly inspected the day after our arrival, the Rohilkhand-Kumaon Railway very kindly ran a train a day earlier than was intended, no doubt at considerable inconvenience to themselves, a favour which was appreciated greatly.

Another important point is the provisioning of the camp. There are no villages with banias' shops convenient, so a bania is attached to the camp, and this makes it necessary to ascertain how much of each kind of food, &c., the students will require per day for a certain number of days. This information should reach the Divisional Forest officer, Lakhimpur, before Christmas, so that he may make adequate arrangements.

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Tents have to be taken, which is another difficulty. They are sent in advance by goods train during Christmas week, which is easy enough, but as they are not wanted at Lahore, they have to be returned from Oudh to Saharanpur. I was indeed hospitably housed in bungalows, but these may be otherwise occupied, and do not exist everywhere. Coupes are very large and though next year the same camps will do, it will not always be possible to find houses within reach of the work. The forests seen are often densely grassed and without people or cattle, so that short cuts across country are rare. It is a case of going miles round by road, or of forcing a way with greater exertion and little or no saving of time. In fact, it is largely elephant forest, in which a man on foot is at a disadvantage in using either his legs or his eyes.

We were unable to return, as originally intended, on the 12th, as one of the piles was washed out of the Sarda bridge, and trains ceased running till 15th January.

Next year, it will be better to delay this tour till after the Punjab visit and so not only find the depôts in full work, but avoid the chance of a difficult year like the present interrupting the regular course of the arrangements. We are greatly indebted to the Divisional Officer, Mr. J. C. Tulloch, not only for complete information, instantly available on demand, but for managing our supply and transport both by rail and road in so satisfactory a manner.

January 5th, 1898. Roll call at Mailani, whither the students found their own way, partly from Dehra Dún, and partly from their homes.

January 6th. At Mailani. Visited the Marha Working Circle of the Kheri Division. It is partly high forest under improvement fellings, but the part we inspected was the coppice with standard area. It is yet only in process of conversion from the original irregular high forest. The crop is of mixed species, mostly sal, with sain and a few various. The forest is on a flat plain of alluvium, with very slight elevations and depressions. The water level in the hot weather averages 12ft. below the surface. The vegetable soil containing humus is generally 2in. occasionally 6in. deep. The elevation averages 555ft above sea level. The rainfall varies from 45 to 54 inches.

The Working Plan began from 1893-94. The rotation is only 24 years, because the principal market, the railway, takes nothing over 9 in. in diameter. The area of the coppice Working Circle is 23,500 acres stocked and nearly 6,000 unstocked. There were no fellings in coupe No. 3 last year, as the railway ceased taking fuel owing to a dispute, they having without warning declined to accept anything but sal. On reference to government, they had to take the wood refused, but in future they take sal only, which may be to their own interest, but is certainly not to the interest of the country. This year, therefore, two coupes were felled, No. 3 containing 840 acres stocked and 186 unstocked,

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and No. 4, of 897 stocked and 105 unstocked. No. 5 is being marked for next year. The coupes are marked by the Department, sold by tender and cut by purchasers. The contractor cuts every thing flush with the ground and is supposed to coppice all stools, but the stumps are not yet smoothed and frequently quite concave. In fact coppicing is as yet a new idea to the people and they are still grappling with it. Felling begins about November, finishing 15th June. All sal 3'-9" in diameter goes to the Railway, the balance to Lucknow and Bareilly for brick burning. The regular length is 2½ft. the thick pieces being split at destination. The maximum reservation of standards is fixed at 75 stems of class V (up to 6" diam.) or 50 stems of class IV (6" to 12" diam.) which gives a distance apart of 24ft. and 30ft. respectively. The number actually reserved is 56·7 per acre.

During the felling, 10 per cent., of the area is re-counted to see that the correct number of standards is kept as per Working Plan. Standards are kept for 3 rotations only, *viz.* 24,48, and 72 years, as after that age they become hollow. Though the crop is mostly sal and sain (*Terminalia tomentosa*) it is not always possible to secure an even distribution of standards with these two species. As the locality suffers from frost, this is an important point, and to secure it inferior species, such as *Terminalia Belerica*, and even *Odina Wodier*, are occasionally, but quite exceptionally, reserved. The forest has never been treated before, except by the extraction of trees irregularly as required. The forest is a dense growth of medium size, with plenty of underwood of shade-bearing shrubs, &c. There are numerous "*chāndas*" or grass areas, totalling about ⅓rd of the whole forest. These are slowly filling up with sal, notwithstanding the fact that frost kills off most of the plants as soon as they top the grass. We saw vast expanses of grass containing an almost equal quantity of young sal, all killed outright and brown. In a few scattered spots, plants are safe at 6-8 ft high, but mostly, on low ground or poor soil, they are not safe till they reach 15 or more feet high The system of strip fellings, 30 ft. broad, with 60 ft. of forest between, was tried in Gola but abandoned, as all the young plants were killed by frost.

The rate of growth from 1881 to 1891 for the coppice area was obtained from two sample plots of 1 acre and ¼ acre respectively, far too small to give reliable results, as follows :—

V Class, up to 6 in. diam.		gave	·544	inches per year on the girth
IV	„	6 in.—12 in	„ ·617	
III	„	12 in.—18 in.	„ ·362	(from 5 trees)
II	„	18 in.—24 in.	„ ·447	(1 tree only)

Two other small plots in the high forest area gave :

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V Class=·510, IV Class=·462, III Class=(7 trees)=·573, II Class (3 trees)=·625.

These figures suggest a rotation of 33 years, but it was not adopted, because certain clean fellings showed that the growth was faster. Forest land had been given out to grantees, who made these clean fellings, but failed to cultivate, so the land was resumed, and it was found that areas felled 20-30 years previously were covered with trees 18 to 24 in. in girth.

We measured some sal trees, to find the heights corresponding to different girths, and found.

Girth	Height	Girth	Height
15 in.	27 ft.	30 in.	51 ft.
17 „	35 „	30 „	51½ „
19 „	37 „	32½ „	60 „
26 „	55 „	35 „	65 „
27 „	50 „	36 „	57 „
29 „	47½ „	37½ „	55 „
29½ „	55 „	42 „	60 „
29½ „	55½ „		

There are no rights or privileges in the Coppice area, but the grazing question is important here as elsewhere, and is met in the high forest area. Even there, there are no rights, but only concessions. The grazing is on passes, at privileged rates, 2 as. per cow and 4 as. per buffalo, against 4 as. and 10 as. market rates, per year, and there is no close season. The concession extends to all villages within 3 miles of the forest boundary. The inhabitants of these villages may graze, at the above privileged rates, 10 cattle for every 2 acres of land that had been cultivated on the average of the 5 years preceding the grazing settlement, which here was not simultaneous with Forest Settlement. The amount of the concession was settled once for all, and is not subject to annual revisions. The forest has to provide so much grazing, the Deputy Commissioner realises the dues from each village, and the tehsildars allot the individual shares with their usual impartiality. It is most difficult to verify the actual number of cattle in the forest, for the people have a rooted aversion to precise figures, and always manage so that the cattle are not at home, or otherwise spoil the count. The proper way to meet these tactics would be suspension of the concession. The fixed number, (5 head per average acre of cultivation) includes cattle kept for trade, as well as for agriculture, and extra cattle pay outside rates. Sufficient areas are set apart as grazing blocks. The area necessary turned out to be less than the amount of forest left out of the provisional Working Plan for the purpose, and this balance has accordingly been resumed, and brought under a separate Working

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Plan for the present, but will eventually be included in the coppice or High Forest areas, according to position. Climbers are cut twice in the rotation, wherever most necessary, about 4,000 acres (¼ coupes) a year, an interval of 12 years in mid-rotation being left without any climber cutting. This operation costs 10-12 pies per acre. The coupe areas vary from 980 to 1,983 acres, according to the stock on them. No planting or sowing is done. The fellings this year being about 1,900 acres will employ 2,000 men and 50 carts, but contractors are taking matters easy, so it is evident that much less labour would suffice. A curtain 50 feet broad is left round all *chāndas*, and along firelines: in this screen nothing is cut, as the marking begins by reserving everything in it. We measured the cover of two trees and found.

Girth 24 in. cover 12′ 9″ × 13′-9″ = 138 square feet, assumed as a circle.

Girth 40½ in. cover 16′ × 15′ = 188 square feet, assumed as a circle.

It was formerly proposed to put up grass roofs over a few young seedlings per acre, till they got out of reach of frost, but the proposal met with perhaps less consideration than it deserved, ploughing and sowing broadcast being preferred. This appears to me a mistake, for there are crowds of seedlings which perish just as the ploughed ones would. Further, the ploughing would probably run into something like Rs. 30 per acre in such grass. One tree per acre saved by means of a grass roof would cost perhaps 8 annas, and would thenceforth begin to act as a centre of infection for shelter that would be invaluable and almost immediate. There is a 50 foot fire line round the outer boundary where it adjoins private forests, and along roads. The grass is cut by 15th December, spread out to dry, and burnt by 15th January. The dense dry grass stands in the forest all the hot weather, till beaten down in the rains, but the firepath becomes green about March, so that there is little ground for apprehension so far as the *bonâ-fide* wayfarer and his pipe are concerned. There is little or none of that deliberate incendiarism which is the characteristic of Bombay. The grass lands outside forests are also burnt by the department without any objection being made.

January 7th. Rail to Sonaripur, 32 miles. Left Mailani by special train about 9 a.m., arriving about 2 p.m. Passed through No 1 of Marha Coppice, noting the re-growth At mile 11, a bank of abont 20 feet high marks the bed of the Sarda river which is 13 miles wide, and has a corresponding bank at Dudwa, abont mile 24. In this broad bed, the Sarda meanders about, continually eroding in uncertain places, and is very difficult to control, and even to cross on the march, being deep sand where dry, and frequently quicksand where wet. The principal of the railway bridges is built on piles where the water is shallow, and on 7 or 8 pontoons

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where it is deep. The other bridges are all on sal piles which are driven by "monkey" pile-drivers 20 feet into the sand. The "monkey' is a heavy weight, hauled up to the top of a nearly vertical girder structure by means of a windlass, and then automatically released by the knocking out of a bolt, when it falls on the head of the pile. Two piles a day is average work, and more time is consumed in adjusting the pile, and the boat carrying the "monkey," than in the actual driving. The current, when we crossed, was about 3 miles an hour, and the deep channel about 15 feet of water. Spurs have sometimes to be built out up stream, to prevent the piles being washed out. There are two forest houses at Dudwa (called by the railway people Sohela.) At Sonaripur there is one, and also the depôt for B. G. sleepers, of which 1,50,000 have to come out this year. Work should begin 1st January, but is delayed this year by the unusual amount of water about the country.

January 8th. March to Changa nala, 7 miles, visiting on the road coupe No. 1 in Compartment No. 54 of Bhadi Working Circle The coupe area is 3,256 acres, in which an improvement felling was made in 1892-93, and the inferior species and unsaleable trees girdled in 1893-94. Total I class trees felled or girdled 7,700. A great fire passed over the whole area between here and Dudwa in 1895, and did great and widespread damage. The fire was very severe, killing many large trees, and large branches off many more, besides exterminating all young growth less than 10 years old. The last previous fire was some 20 years earlier. The first Working Plan was made in 1887, but was not based on sufficiently accurate data. In 1888, another Working Plan was prepared, which was also found to be incorrect. The actual Working Plan was prepared in 1892 by Babu Keshavanand. The whole trans-Sarda forests are divided into high and low alluvium. The former lies between the Soheli river on the south, and the Mohan (frontier of Nepal) on the north, and slopes from both sides towards the Juraha nala. in the centre. It is curious that the bed of the Juraha is some 5 feet or so below that of the Sarda into which it runs. The consequence is that the *chāndas*, or low open areas covered with strong grass, are several feet under water till the Sarda runs down about November. The average elevation is about 600 feet above sea level. The low alluvium is some 25-30 feet lower, and consists of both banks of the Soheli river the growth being principally grass with khair and miscellaneous jungle. On the high alluvium the soil is a sandy loam from 5 to 20 feet deep, mixed with variable beds of clay. A feature of the country to be reckoned with is an impervious bed of kankar, which sometimes comes too near the surface, and has beneath it frequently unfathomable sand, for the most part dry. The vegetable mould is about 3 feet deep. The average hot-weather water level is 15-20 feet below the surface. Frost is less to be feared than in Bhira forests on account of the

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greater elevation. Sal forms ⅔rds of the total stock, sain occurs chiefly along nalas and edges of *chandās*, also interspersed with sal over the whole area. Sain endures frost better than sal, yet the universal presence of sal seedlings, and the very general absence of sain in the *chandās*, appears to require more explanation than is found in the difference of seed.

The I and II Class trees in Bhadi Working Circle, 33,470 acres, were all counted, and it was found that of the I class sal, 50 per cent. were totally unsound, 43 per cent. partly sound (crooked, knotty, &c.,) and only 7 per cent. sound. Of the II class sal, 25 per cent. were quite unsound, 49 per cent. partly sound, and 26 per cent. sound. The past treatment had consisted in the removal of all good trees at a royalty of Re. 1 per tree by contractors under the Rajah of Khairigarh-Singhai, who obtained the land on agricultural grant, as already explained for Bhira. The remaining sal trees were tapped for resin, and still show the effects in their curiously thickened trunks. The land was then resumed by Government. The exploitable age was sought from sample plots at Dudwa, which gave the following rates of growth :—

Class	V	becomes Class		IV	in 35	years.
„	IV	„	„	III	18·3	„
„	III	„	„	II	21·7	„
„	II	„	„	I	23·8	„

The age thus obtained is 99 years. The locality being very good, this was thought too short, so it was compared with sample plots in the Central Circle (Garhwal and Kumaon.) These were of two kinds, thinned and unthinned. The former gave an average of 0·8 in. girth per year, the latter. 0·4 in. or an exploitable age of 90 and 180 years respectively, the mean being 135 years. The average time taken by a II Class tree to become I class was 33·75 years. It was therefore assumed that the average rate per annum would be 6in. girth, giving an exploitable age of 120 years, and a II class tree requiring 30 years to attain the I class. To get rid of unsound material as soon as possible, a felling rotation of 10 years was adopted. Then the possibility had to be fixed. Enumeration showed that the stock comprised 129,467 I class, and 291,440 II class sal. There were therefore of the II cla s trees exploitable each year $\frac{291,440}{30}$ or about 9,000 trees, which gives on the average $\frac{9,000}{33,470} = \cdot 3$ trees per acre per annum. Assuming the areas of the coupes to be equal, *i. e.* $\frac{1}{10}$th of the Working Circle : the exploitable stock at the end of the felling cycle will be : coupe 1, $9,000 \times \frac{1}{10}$ acre × 10 years ; coupe 2, $\frac{9,000}{10} \times 9$;

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coupe 8, $\frac{9000}{10} \times 8$, &c. total = 900 (10+9 +8...+1) = 49,000, from which it is seen that there is a surplus stock of about 1,29,000—49,000 = 80,000 trees. (The figure 49,000 represents the number of II class trees attaining I class in 10 years). On account of the abnormal state of the crop it is proposed to remove the excess in 30 years, because its removal in 10 years would cause too great a clearance. The average number of I class sal that can be removed annually is, therefore, 9,000 + $\frac{80,000}{30}$ or about 11,700 trees. Climber cutting and marking precede the felling by one year, and girdling follows the year after

The felling statement is as follows :—

Year	Area	Sound sal to cut	Unsound sal to cut	Total
1892-93	3,256	700	7,000	7,700
1893-94	2,792	600	7,500	8,100
1894-95	3,824	400	8,500	8,900
1895-96	2,983	800	11,000	11,800
1896-97	2,874	1,500	11,000	12,500
1897-98	3,991	2,500	10,000	12,500
1898-99	3,237	950	9,000	9,950
1899-1900	3,982	700	11,000	11,700
1900-01	3,258	2,050	12,000	14,050
1901-02	3,273	2,800	13,000	15,800

These figures are maxima, not to be exceeded. The coupes can only be considered immense, and their size is justified by transport considerations, as the railway is supposed, in principle, to run a branch line always convenient. Hitherto, the principle has not been much adhered to in practice, the lead from current fellings being 8 to 10 miles or more.

On this march we passed a monument to the memory of Mr. Abbey, a Coopers Hill officer who was killed by a dead tree falling on him. The stump is still there, nearly opposite the monument. Mr. Abbey was riding along the line, heard the tree crack, and spurred his horse, but the animal slipped and failed to get from under. Mr. Abbey's grave is in Lakhimpur, the monument here marks the actual site of the accident.

(To be continued.)

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The effects of Fire on Grazing and the Production of Grass.

Forest officers in their endeavours to extend fire conservancy, constantly find the objection put forward that fire protection will interfere with grazing. There is among agricultural people a firmly rooted conviction, which is not confined to natives of this country, that burning off the dead grass that remains at the close of the autumn or in early spring, is a necessary condition for a good crop of grass. It is said that burning not only causes the grass to spring earlier and yield a more luxuriant crop, but, also destroys a vast number of ticks and other insects, which, if unchecked, would render grazing an impossibility.

On the other hand, it is asserted by Forest officers that the annual fires, though they may stimulate the grass to earlier growth, have the effect of killing out the better kinds and leaving only the coarser varieties which cannot be eaten by cattle except when they are quite young. That this is the case and that constant burning must necessarily cause deterioration of the soil, seems almost self-evident, but in the absence of recorded facts it is often difficult to convince people who hold opposite views. It is hoped therefore that those who are in a position to do so will take the matter up and give the readers of the "Indian Forester" an account of the precise effect on the grazing or grass supply, of any protective measures with which they have been concerned. I have heard it stated that in many cases where fire protection has been for many years the rule, the grass supply has been so obviously improved that neighbouring land-holders have come to recognize the value of such measures and have taken to fire-protecting their own forest lands, but I cannot find any reports in which such facts are officially recorded.

Another point in which information is desirable, is whether fire protection alone is sufficient to improve the crop in areas set apart for the production of grass, and if so, how many years it takes to obtain the desired results. So far, my own experience has been that where rank grasses have once thoroughly established themselves, protection alone, unaccompanied by heavy cutting or grazing, only causes such grasses to grow more luxuriantly and that the finer kinds do not re-assert themselves. This, of course, applies only to *bonâ-fide* grass lands: in areas under forest, the young trees which naturally come up as a rule kill out the tall grasses, but I have heard it stated that this is not the case in chir forests, in which fire protection is said to stimulate the production of coarser and ranker grasses.

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Note on a White Ant Preventive

In the Residency Gardens at Jodhpur, white ants get up the trees and have daily to be swept away. In 1896, Colonel H. B. Abbott, the then Resident, sent me a number of the Indian Agricultural Ledger, through the Judicial Secretary, pointing out a preventive measure suggested in it.

After taking Dr. George Watt's advice as to vernacular names, and the quality of the ingredients used (samples were sent to Dr. G. Watt) the preventive was prepared as follows—

English name.	*Vernacular name.*	*Quantity.*	*Value.*
1 Dekamli gum (*Gardenia gummifera*)	Dekamli gund	1 seer	Rs. 1 0
2 Assafœtida	Hing	1½ seer	„ 1 9
3 Aloes	Musabbar	1 seer	„ 1 0
4 Vermilion	Sandhur	10 chs.	„ 0 4
5 Castor oil refuse	Khal Irind	1½ seer	„ 0 3
		Total cost	Rs. 4 0

All these ingredients but No. 4 were well ground together and kept in water for a fortnight. Then No. 4 was mixed in the fluid to the consistency of a thin paste and the compound was pasted on 60 trees of nim and shisham (girth 1 ft. to 2 ft.) from bottom to a height of 2 feet. Thenceforth, white ants did not come near the trees except when the paste was washed away by rain.

The preventive is so far successful, but its cost, it is to be regretted, is prohibitive.

JODHPUR,
29th January, 1898.

GOKAL DAS,
Forest Officer, Marwar.

Willow for Cricket Bats.

I am writing these few notes, as I do not know if other Forest Officers are aware of the large demand which is springing up for willow wood for cricket bats. The species in request is the weeping willow *Salix babylonica*, vern. Majnun. The common willow *Salix tetrasperma* vern. Laila is of much less value and only suitable for bats of inferior quality. The supply of *Salix babylonica* appears to be very limited, for traders have come from distances to obtain this species from Changa Manga, and say that they are unable to get it anywhere else.

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I shall be interested to know if it occurs in large quantities in any other Divisions. The supply at Changa Manga has unfortunately been exhausted with the exception of a few trees reserved for yielding cuttings. Thousands of cuttings have been put in along watercourses from time to time since the plantation has been started; but only two or three hundred trees have survived to yield timber. It is very evident it was not known at the time the cuttings were put in, that the timber would turn out so valuable, or more care would have been taken with the cuttings and young trees. It was quite an accident that any survived. The trees felled were mostly rotten and were generally of a bad shape and covered with side branches. This is only natural, as the trees were only put in with the intention of strengthening the banks of the watercourses and they were only expected to yield fuel. It is now time, however, to give some attention to willow growing, since a demand has sprung up for its timber. The sound timber at Changa Manga fetched ten annas per cubic foot, equal to sound tún wood. Willow is very easy to propagate from cuttings in places where there is sufficient moisture, as along watercourses, streams, etc. I have just seen a very interesting book by Geo. G. Bussay & Co., London, called "The Bat of the Victorian Era." This gives a very interesting account of the manufacture of cricket bats: and besides, contains many useful facts about growing willow and the qualities of willow timber. It it quite a small book of 32 pages in large print, and full of good illustrations.

It appears that the sapwood is the valuable portion, thus the willow is an exception to most timbers, in which the heartwood is of the greatest value. The butt end yields very much superior timber to the higher portions of the trunk: hence the necessity for felling as low as possible.

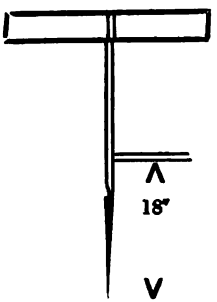
The willow is propagated by cuttings which are technically called "sets." Each "set" should be 2 inches in diameter and 8 to 10 feet in length and as straight as possible. An interesting and important point to note is that "sets" should be taken from trees with "close" bark, in contradistinction to those with "open" bark. A little experience is required to distinguish the two: illustrations of the two different barks are given in Bussey's book. The "close" bark trees yield the best driving timber.

The "sets" should be clean cut obliquely by a blow from a sharp knife or axe, and it is best to cut against a wooden mallet or other block of wood. The reason for cutting obliquely is to enable the soil to be pressed more closely around the cut surface. They should be put out in rows about 12 ft. apart along the sides of streams or watercourses. A good plan is to plant them in a meadow, and then transplant after 2 or 3

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years. The cut should be made just below a bud. It is advisable to put the "sets" in the ground in a slanting position. This, together with the oblique cut, enables the soil to be pressed tightly round the cut surface. If put in vertically, the soil may lie loosely round the cut surface, and the "set" is liable to wither. Leaves should be removed from a "set" to stop excessive transpiration.

Holes should be made for the "sets" with a planting iron, which can easily be made from a bar of old iron. It should be pointed at the end, and it is well to have a piece at right angles at about 18 inches from the point, so that the foot can assist if necessary in pushing it into the ground. A bar of wood at the top will make a handle.



The willow being a very soft timber is liable to many ills and requires a little looking after. Damage to its bark is very common, and I have seen considerable damage done to it by porcupines. The trees should be kept well pruned of side branches to produce timber free from knots.

Felling is done when a girth of about 45 inches has been attained; but there is a demand for smaller timber also. The age for felling will probably be from 20 to 30 years. They must be watched, however, as decay sets in very early. Felling should be done in the winter when the sap is down. For cricket bats, lengths of 2 feet 6 inches are required.

There is no doubt that the game of cricket is spreading rapidly in this country, and there is every reason to suppose that efforts made to grow good willow timber now, will be well repaid in the future.

B. U. C.

9th January, 1898.

II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

Concentric Rings in the Mangrove.

SIR,

With reference to Mr. Gamble's letter in the November number of the "Indian Forester" under the above heading, he states: "The rings shown by Avicennia are *obviously* in no 'way periodical for they are not concentric and run into 'each other." The italics for the word "obviously" are mine.

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I fail to see how that word "obviously" applies on the datum that the rings are not concentric and run into each other, or rather that, on account of those *characteristics* periodicity cannot possibly exist.

I believe it will be allowed that forest fires are one of the causes of spurious rings in trees, *i. e.*, of rings which are not necessarily concentric and which may run into another. Suppose such forest fires occurred at regular intervals we should certainly have periodic rings, although not necessarily concentric.

I propounded the theory that possibly the monthly difference of the tides might have *something* to do with these rings, owing to the trees being more flushed with water at one part of the month than at another and I fail to see that because they are not concentric it is impossible that they should be periodical.

If they are not periodical, it is a curious coincidence, that in one coupe I examined, 25 months after it had been cut, there were, in the majority of cases, 25 of these spurious rings; and in another coupe examined, 35 months after it had been cut, the majority of trees springing from the stool (for they coppice freely as well as spring from suckers), showed 35 of such rings.

It was after the information kindly supplied by Mr. Gamble in the "Indian Forester" Vol. XIX, that it occurred to me that possibly spurious rings might be periodical, in the cases where tides *must* have *some* effect on the growth, and that I made the examination above referred to.

One other thing that I found was that the ring was generally most distinct on the side away from the creek, and this was the case on both sides of the creek; also that the further away from the creek the more stunted were the trees.

MASULIPATAM,
19th January, 1898.

A. W. LUSHINGTON.

NOTE.—We would suggest that Mr. Lushington, should make a careful anatomical study of the rings. We believe he will find that between each layer of wood there is a layer of different tissue (probably bark). In any case, however, the rings do seem to us 'obviously' not the same as ordinary annual rings, such as are met with in such trees as the oak, teak, conifers, etc. However, the coincidence pointed out by our correspondent is interesting and we are quite willing to withdraw the 'obviously' if he will investigate further and convince us. We have just examined a section of an *Avicennia*, it gives, on 7 different radii, the following number of rings, 54,55,59,68,71, 70,67. Of course there are many rings anastomozing. How does Mr. Lushington make this agree with his theory?

HON. ED.

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An Imperial Forest Blazer.

SIR,

I regret to see that the correspondence about a blazer for the Imperial Forest Service has ceased and no interest is taken in the matter. All other Departments have a blazer and why should not the Forest Department which is second to none. There is a want of *esprit-de-corps*. There is little doubt that the majority of officers wish for a Departmental Blazer, for no one has written against it, or given any reason why there should not be one. At least I have not been able to find any correspondence to this effect in the "Indian Forester."

The difficulty lies in deciding on what colours to have. If there were any forest conference and men could meet together and discuss the matter, some definite conclusion might be arrived at. In the absence of this, it is naturally difficult to settle. Each individual wishes to give his opinion and nothing but confusion results.

Why should not the matter be settled by a few representatives, say one from each Province or Circle. There would then be no great difficulty. Most officers, I am sure, would be glad to agree to anything, provided some colours are settled on. I would suggest that Conservators form a Committee, elect a President, and decide on the colours.

There is no reason why Coopers Hill men should stand out against a Departmental blazer: for there would be nothing to prevent them from wearing their Coopers Hill blazers whenever they wished. It will be a long time, if ever, before they are in the majority. It is quite possible that in future years the Forest Officers may be recruited from elsewhere.

Military Officers wear regimental blazers in spite of having a Sandhurst or Woolwich blazer, and Civil Service men wear their Departmental blazer in spite of their University blazers. For the sake of *esprit-de-corps* we ought to have a Departmental blazer; and I hope some senior man will take up the matter and carry it through.

NIL DESPERANDUM.

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III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Note on the Fructification of Deodar.*

I have made during the last 12 months a most careful study of the fructicfication of Deodar at Simla, which may interest you. Both male and female flowers appear first with light brown covering sheaths like this. (fig 1)

The covering sheath opened in 1897, as regards the male flowers, from the 25th July, and in a very few days the majority of male flowers appeared. However, there were some late individuals, and some only came out in the end of August. The first female flower I observed naked was on the 1st of September. There is no difficulty in recognizing the female even in the early stages of growth, and in fact with a magnifying glass its characteristics can be ascertained when still enveloped by its sheaths. In the male flowers the scales are closed up from the very beginning like this. (fig 2)

In the female flower they are gaping like this. (fig 3) There is very little difference in the general shape at the outset, which can be seen by comparing the female with a late appearing male; but, of course, when the female appears, the majority of males have already assumed an elongated shape. When the pollen is shed, the females are moist and the pollen sticks to them.

As soon as they are fructified, the scales of the female close, I believe on the very first day, but this I mean to further examine.



No. 1



No. 2



No. 3



Male (enlarged).



Female (enlarged).

* NOTE.—This was sent to our predecessor last Autumn and as the subject is one of great interest to all Forest officers in the North-West Himalaya, we think it right to publish it, and invite investigation. It is an extract of a letter from the Inspector-General of Forests, to Sir D. Brandis.

HON. ED.

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Then they seem to assume a little rounder appearance for a fortnight or so, and then the growth seems to stop till the following March, or is at least imperceptible. From March to end of August they increase in size and then the ripening time begins. In the majority of cases males and females are on separate trees, but they are also found on the same tree, where as a rule the females occupy the lower, the males the upper branches. I have never observed males and females on the same branch. As regards this I have been contradicted, but people did so from memory only and as yet I have had no proof that my observation is incorrect.

B. RIBBENTROP.

Reproduction of Teak by means of Taungyas.

Letter from the Inspector-General of Forests, to the Revenue Secretary to the Government of Burma.

Dated 1st July, 1897.

SIR,

With reference to your letter of the 21st May last, I beg to thank His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor for having given me an opportunity to express my opinion as regards the reproduction of teak by means of *taungyas*.

2. The Government of India in their review of the Burma Annual Reports for 1895-96 and Lieutenant-Governor's resolution thereon state :—

"It is unquestionable that the reproduction of teak and the other more valuable trees must in the great majority of cases be promoted by means of protection and improvement fellings, since larger areas can be treated in this manner than in any other. There are, however, many tracts in which the valuable species are represented very sparsely or not at all, and in these, improvement fellings and the most careful protection would be of no use. In such localities, if they are otherwise suitable for the growth of teak, the tree must be artificially introduced, and in this respect the teak *taungyas* have proved of great benefit. That such artificial plantations, which it is hoped will in time form centres for the natural spread of the tree, will require attention during the earlier stages of existence, has always been anticipated. If such plantations are in some cases overweeded and not thinned out in time, this is an error in practice and not in principle. There is no doubt, however, that teak *taungyas* should be established only in localities where the reproduction of the tree cannot be effected by simpler means. There should apparently be no difficulty in providing other work for the *taungya* cutters in reserves which have been planted out, especially as they have their own *taungya* areas upon which to fall back for their crops."

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3. You will observe that the opinion there expressed, in which I share, coincides with that of Messrs. Nisbet and Dickinson, though it does not enter into the same degree of detail.

There can be no doubt that the formation of extensive forests of one kind of tree is always accompanied by certain dangers, especially where this has been attempted in localities in any way unsuitable to the species. However, our teak *taungyas* do not aim at the establishment of large uninterrupted areas of teak plantations, but of plots of more or less extent interspersed in forests of a mixed character and in localities situated within the natural teak zone, where for some reason or other unconnected with the suitability of soil or locality, the teak has disappeared or has not properly established itself.

4. Mr. Corbett states in his note, that the object of teak plantations seems to be to induce the species to grow in places where it was not represented before and where, in the hundreds of years that have passed, it would surely have forced its way and found a footing if the soil and other conditions had been suitable to it. This is not so, or, at least, but partially. The object of teak *taungyas* is not to introduce the tree on unsuitable soil, or in places where the drainage is bad, or where other physical conditions pertaining to the locality prevent the healthy growth of teak; but to introduce it on suitable areas, where, owing to the growth of gregariously-flowering bamboos and severe fires during the period immediately following their seeding, the tree has had no chance of establishing itself and but a meagre one of reproducing itself.

To the west of the Arakan Yoma hundreds and hundreds of square miles of pure bamboo forests are to be found, with only a tree here and there, or often with no trees at all, and during hundreds of years, to use Mr. Corbett's words, none have found a footing. There are many other localities like this in tropical climates. Surely Mr. Corbett does not intend to argue that all these areas are physically unfit for arbori-vegetation, and that by judicious interference with existing conditions they could not be made to bear tree-forests?

5. The system of teak *taungyas* was invented and elaborated mainly in order to ensure the reproduction of the tree in localities where the gregariously-flowering bamboos, which I fully recognise to be one of the greatest enemies of the teak, held possession of the ground. I do not, under these circumstances, understand Mr. Thompson's remark, recorded in paragraph 14 of the Tenasserim report, that persistence in such operations will probably greatly favour the growth of bamboos. If, owing to want of care, we permit the bamboos to re-establish themselves as masters of the ground, we are only where we were previous to our attempts to make trees of good species take

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their place. We have failed to subordinate the bamboo, which in most cases, I maintain, is due to our own want of care, and this cannot be urged as a fault of the arbori-*taungya* system.

Both Mr. Thompson and Mr. Prevost's observations recorded in paragraphs 14 to 18 were made in the Tenasserim Circle. Whether the *taungyas* visited by those officers were established in suitable localities, I do not know, and have no means of ascertaining; but the records I have seen from time to time show that the earlier operations were comparative failures from the very outset, that many of them were burned on more than one occasion, and that they hardly ever received that care and supervision which sylvicultural operations of whatever kind required. It seems a pity that Mr. Prevost should have, under these circumstances, expressed that unqualified disapproval of pure teak plantations as carried out under the *taungya* system, which, under certain circumstances, is the only practical method of ensuring a continuous reproduction of the tree; but I am not opposed to such questions, though highly controversial, finding a place in annual reports, as their detailed consideration is thereby ensured, which in this present instance is particularly desirable.

There is no doubt that, with the splendid early growth of the teak in the Tharrawaddy *taungyas* before us, we believed that much less after-interference would be necessary in order to establish plots with a greatly preponderating mixture of teak than was subsequently found indispensable. When this was first ascertained, we naturally fell into mistakes in the opposite direction, and the weedings may have been perhaps too drastic and perhaps ill timed, exposing the soil too much to the direct action of the rain; but it must not be forgotten that we have to deal with a vegetation difficult of control and with labour difficult to guide, and that to do this we have but a small trained establishment. Undoubtedly mistakes have been made in the treatment of some *taungyas*, even in Tharrawaddy, and the success is in these cases not what we had hoped for in the early days nor what it might have been; but, as pointed out by Mr. Dickinson, there is hardly a *ya* that does not contain enough young teak to greatly improve the future stock.

7. Since the day when *taungya* plantations were first started, the Burma forester has gained in experience, a better trained subordinate staff has been organized, and better supervision is gradually becoming available; and we may, therefore, now count on more general success than has been obtained in the past in establishing a satisfactory young growth by means of such plantations, and on forming the forest of the future in the areas dealt with, by means of fire-protection and judicious treatment. The immediate questions connected with such treatment are:—

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(a) How long and to what extent weeding should proceed? In my opinion the early weeding cannot be too severe so long as the weeds are not pulled up by the roots during the rains, which may cause the washing away of the soil.

(b) To what extent are cleanings to be carried out in the years following? In this respect I agree with Mr. Corbett that nothing should be cut that does not overtop the teak or interfere with the full development of their upper leaves.

(c) When should thinnings begin and what should be the degree of such thinnings? This depends entirely on local circumstances and requires to be decided on the spot. I am in favour of fairly early thinnings, to be followed by pretty severe thinnings as soon as the teak is out of danger of being over-topped, in order to encourage the development of a good crown of foliage; and believe that all thinnings should be accompanied by the removal of all soft wood and fast growing species of other kinds. Thinnings have, till quite lately, been greatly neglected.

8. I believe it to be a fact that of late years teak *taungyas* have sometimes been established in localites where they were not required and where reproduction could have been ensured by means of fire-protection and improvement fellings; but this again is not a fault of the principle, but merely of of its application.

Primâ facie, the establishment of teak *taungyas* should be restricted to areas more or less under the influence of dense shading gregariously-flowering bamboos. I know, however, a good many localities, some even in Upper Burma, in the Sinkan Valley for instance, where teak has practically been exterminated over considerable areas, and in such, I would consider the establishment of teak *taungyas* eminently advisable and much less troublesome as regards their future treatment than in the dense bamboo forests of Lower Burma. They would form groups, from which the tree would spread naturally in years to come.

9. In my opinion it would certainly be inadvisable to put a stop to the future extension of teak *taungyas*, and difficult to lay down general orders and rules limiting their future establishment. The question depends so completely on local conditions that it must be left entirely to the observations made and conclusions drawn by local officers.

It seems almost superfluous to say that teak *taungyas* should not be attempted where the soil and other physical conditions are unsuitable to the trees, nor that their establish-

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ment is necessary where natural regeneration of teak, pyinkado and other valuable species exists, or where it can be obtained by improvement fellings. Such fellings, however, as pointed out by Mr. Dickinson, will not do much to increase the quantity of teak in localities where the forest contains little or no teak already, or (I beg to add) where, though some seed-bearers may exist, dense bamboo cover prevents all possibility of regeneration, except at long intervals during the time of flowering. To such localities should teak *taungyas* be restricted.

IV.—REVIEWS.

Forest Conservancy in Ceylon during 1896.

The Ceylon Forest Conservancy Report is rather difficult reading for an outsider, as it contains such a large number of unexplained local terms. The principal event of the year was the handing over to the direct control of the Conservator, of areas amounting to 2,440 square miles, out of a total of 8,794 square miles of crown forests. The area of the reserved forests at the close of the year was 154 square miles and a further area of 299 miles was under settlement. This latter work appears to have been delayed for want of maps, but arrangements have now been made to have the forests properly surveyed. Hitherto the maps supplied were only skeleton maps without topographical details, which consequently were of little use for forest purposes.

There is only one Working Plan at present in operation and the method therein prescribed, of clear fellings in strips and replanting, has proved a failure owing to the ravages of deer and elephants. This system has therefore been discontinued and fellings are now restricted to dead and suppressed trees. This does not sound very promising and is hardly likely to be satisfactory either as regards revenue or reproduction. A beginning towards systematic working has been made in the Trainamadu forest in the Northern Province where is is intended to work about half a square mile a year for 40 years; and in the Eastern Province, areas representing one sixtieth of the area taken up for reserves, are to be worked each year, taking only the exploitable trees. Seed fellings are to precede these fellings by two years.

The following refers to *Chena* cultivation, which we take it, means the temporary cultivation of forest clearings.

"A great step has been taken towards preventing the 'undue spread of Chena cultivation by the introduction of the

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'Chena and Waste Lands Ordinance. Notwithstanding the asser-
'tions to the contrary of a distinguished member of the planting
'community, large areas are rendered barren by this wasteful
'practice. I expect that the Honourable the Planting Member
'has not seen the effects of chenas on the hillsides of the
'Kukulu Korale, where now nothing but a scanty growth of
'*Hedyotis* and *Vernonia* will grow, nor the sea of thorny scrub
'which stretches right across from near Kurunegala to Habarane,
'nor the vast talawas of illuk grass which in the Eastern
'Province, take the place of chenas, or he would not have made
'that statement in Council. It is wonderful how in out-lying
'districts, small hamlets will destroy square miles of magnificent
'forest merely for a crop of kurakkan or gingelly."

In this respect, it is worth quoting what the Assistant Conservator, Western Province, says :—

"I have had opportunities of visiting the more remote parts
'of the Province where chena culture once existed, and it is most
'satisfactory to record that, even though this wasteful system has
'been done away with, the condition of the people does not indicate
'that they have suffered. On the contrary, fields that would have
'been swamps, had chenas been allowed, are now regularly cultiva-
'ted and (what is more) *they are manured*. People who lived on
'and poisoned themselves and their children by eating kurakkan
'and amu, now eat rice, and now look far more healthy than their
'sickly neighbours of the chena lands, while in the solid structure
'of their dwellings, there is evidence of permanent residence, instead
'of the wigwam life that is characteristic of a chena-growing
'cultivation."

As regards Forest offences we hear that there were 1,278 new cases during the year, of which about 75 per cent. were in connection with illegal clearing of Forest land. Of the 894 cases disposed of in courts, 514 or 57 per cent. were convicted, compensation was accepted in 455 cases.

Plantations were increased during the year by 43 acres, bringing up the total planted area to 1,788 acres. They consist of various pieces of indigenous and exotic trees ; of the latter, para rubber appears to be the most promising, but the trees are not yet old enough to tap. The net cost of the plantation amounts to Rs. 82,227, or nearly Rs. 46 per acre. We quite agree with the Conservator in thinking that the existing forests ought to be brought under proper management before attempting to create new Forest areas.

Climber cutting and improvement fellings appear to have been carried out over an area of about 1,871 acres at a cost of Rs. 3,581, generally with good results.

The department has under its charge 81 miles of cart road, 38 miles of bridle path, and 153 miles of inspection path on the maintenance and part construction of which, some Rs. 2,600

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were spent. Mention is made of wire-rope timber shoots in use in different parts of the Island: it would be highly instructive if the Conservator would send to the "Indian Forester" details of some of these shoots.

The total value of Forest produce of all sorts sold during the year was Rs. 4,90,742, an increase of Rs. 81,217 over that of the previous year. It is not possible to ascertain from the report, the outturn in cubic feet. We see that the Government of India will get its supplies of *Berrya Ammonilla* from Ceylon instead of from its own forests.

The financial results for first time for many years show a surplus, the figures being as follows:—

	Rs.
Receipts	4,72,980
Charges	4,63,375
Surplus Rs. ...	9,605

The department still continued to be burdened with the business of land sales (the proceeds of which are not credited to the Department) which took up a great deal of the time of officers to the detriment of their more legitimate duties.

A Forestry branch has been established at the Ceylon Agricultural School and lecturers have been appointed in Botany, Surveying, Forest Law and Mathematics; the lectures in forestry were written by the Conservator and delivered by the Superintendent of the School. The Conservator also undertook the instruction of the students in practical sylviculture, the students accompanying him during 3 months of his tours.

VI.—EXTRACTS NOTES AND QUERIES.

The Colouring Matters of Various Tanning Materails.

In continuation of his researches on the colouring matters of commercial tanning materials (IMP. INST. JOUR., Vol. III, p. 309), Mr. A G. Perkin, F. R. S. E., contributes to the October number of the *Journal of the Chemical Society*, a paper dealing with several of the well-known products used in the leather industries.

CAPE SUMACH.—This material consists of the leaves of the plant *Colpoon compressum*. It contains, according to an examiintion made in the Leather Industries Laboratory of the Yorkshire College, about 23 per cent. of a catechol-tannin, having the usual characters of these bodies. When used for tanning, it produces a leather having a slightly yellow tinge.

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Mr. Perkin finds that this dyeing property is due to the presence of a glucoside of the yellow mordant coloring matter "*quercetin*." The glucoside was found to have a composition represented by the formula C_{27} H_{30} O_{17}, and to be resolved on hydrolysis into *quercetin* and the sugar dextrose. For this new quercetin glucoside the name "*Osyritrin*" is proposed. The tannin of Cape Sumach was not carefully examined, but it was found to be a tannin-glucoside giving on fusion with potash the well-known substance protocatechuic acid, and on hydrolysis an anhydride and a sugar. In these particulars it closely resembles quinotannin and quinovatannin.

CATECHU.—Two varieties of this material are known in commerce (*vide* IMP. INST. JOUR. Vol. III., p. 88). Both, viz., "*white*" and "*black*" catechu, have been examined by Mr. Perkin. In the case of the former, the observation of Lowe (*Analyt. Chem*, 1874, 12, 127), that it contains *quercetin* is confirmed. With regard to "black" catechu, 400 grammes yielded only 0.05 gramme of a yellow colouring matter, which, however, was found to agree in the melting point of its acetyl derivative and in its tinctorial properties with *quercetin*.

RHUS COTINUS.—As in the case of *Rhus coriaria* (IMP. INST. JOURN., Vol. III, p. 309) this material, commercially known as "Venetian Sumach," was found to contain, not "quercetin," as Lowe concluded but "*myricetin*" giving an acetyl derivative melting at 203°-204° C. (acetyl quercetin melts at 191° C.) Mr. Perkin, however, points out that the existence of "myricetin" in Venetian sumach must not yet be considered absolutely proved, as the material is very liable to extensive adulteration.

It must be noted that the tanning matters considered above are all either leaves of plants or extracts of these. In addition to this class of bodies, there exists a class of tanning materials consisting mainly of seeds and fruits of plants. The most important of these are given in the following table :—

Commercial Name.	Botanical Source.
"Valonia"	*Quercus Ægilops*
"Divi-divi"	*Cæsalpinia coriaria.*
"Myrabolans"	*Terminalia Chebula.*
"Agarobilla"	*Cæsalpinia brevifola.*
Pomegranate rind	*Punica Granatum.*
Gall nuts	*Quercus infectoria.*

Chemical investigation of all these substances showed clearly that they contained no dyestuffs of the "Quercetin" or allied groups. As they are all known to contain either ellagic acid or ellagitannin, it appeared probable that it was to this constituent that their tinctorial property should be ascribed. A series of dyeing experiments, the results of which are concisely exhibited in the

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accompanying table. showed that this was so, the shades obtained being almost identical with those obtained from pure ellegic acid.

Name of Dyestuff.	Chromium mordant.	Aluminium mordant.	Tin mordant.	Iron mordant.
Ellegic acid ...	Pale green olive yellow.	Pale olive yellow.	Scarcely dyed	Somewhat olive, grey-black.
Valonia nuts ...	Green olive yellow	Faint olive	Scarcely dyed	Weak grey-black.
Pomegranate bark	Yellow olive ...	Faint olive	Scarcely dyed	Weak bluish grey-black.
Gall nuts ...	Green olive ...	Faint olive	Scarcely dyed	Purplish black.

A point of considerable theoretical interest, and possibly of ultimate practical importance, is the similarity of the decomposition products of the contained tannins with those of the colouring constituents of the same plant. The following table shows this in a convenient form :—

Tanning material.	Tannin contained.	Decomposition products of the Tannin.	Colouring matter.	Decomposition products of the colouring matter.
Quebracho colorado	Quebracho tannin	Phloroglucinol and Protocatechuic acid	Fisetin ...	Resorcinol. Protocatechuic acid.
Rhus species	Gallotannin	Gallic acid	Myricetin	Phloroglucin. Gallic acid.
Catechus	Catechin	Phloroglucinol and Protocatechuic acid ...	Quercetin	Phloroglucinol Protocatechuic acid.
Cape Sumach	A catechol-tannin	Protocatechuic acid ...	Quercetin	Phloroglucinol and Protocatechuic acid.
Divi-divi	Ellagitannin	—	Ellagacicid	—

Chenab Canal Forest Policy.

Government awaits the result of the deliberations of the Financial Commissioner, Chief Engineer, Irrigation Department, and Conservator of Forests as to the forest policy to be adopted in the case of the Chenab Canal. The question at issue is whether the plan of a large irrigated plantation in a central situation at Lyallpur, as was at first proposed, is to be abandoned in favour of a series of belt plantations along the

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banks of the canal and its distributaries as has been recommended by the Inspector-General of Irrigation. No doubt as between putting the land under crops or under trees, it would be difficult to show the latter course to be the more profitable; in fact, a recent examination of the question as regards Changa Manga showed that Government gets a return from that plantation equal about to what it would receive in land revenue, if the area were cultivated, without anything being left for interest on capital or rent of the lands; but the utility of Changa Manga or of any similar large Government plantation, must not be measured entirely by direct financial results. The existence of such large fuel supplies is a gain to the general public, no less than to the Railway Administration in keeping down the price of fuel.—(*Indian Engineering*.)

A Log Drive in the Alleghanies.

Terrible Experience.

In these days of modern appliances and perfected means of travel by steam and electricity, mutilating distance at the rate of a mile a minute or even more, is considered nothing so startling, but the rapid transit and the *modus operandi* thereof participated in by John Sweetwood, a lumberman in the wilds of the Alleghany Mountains, one day recently, corners the market on fast travelling. Sweetwood, says a writer in the *Philadelphia Times*, is a young man about 22 years of age. He is the son of a farmer from one of the most rural districts of the United States, big, raw-boned, and fearless of anything on top of earth. As with all farmers, so with this one; work during the winter season is slack, and John, thinking to earn an extra penny for himself, determined late in the fall of 1896, and with the opening of the lumbering season, to go into the woods and spend the winter "logging." In lumbering, as in every other kind of employment, experience counts for a great deal, and the inexperienced, or "greenies" as they are termed in the lumberman's camp, are not deemed capable of performing the work of an old hand at the business, and so are generally put at work on something more simple. Fifteen and twenty years ago lumbering was vastly different in the Alleghanies from what it is to-day. Then virgin forests covered the entire range of mountains and the lumbermen had only to select the timber nearest to some stream, and the work of geting the logs to water to float down to market was a question of minor importance. Now, owing to the fact that all the

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timber along the large streams has been cut, the getting of the logs to water is one of the gravest questions confronting the lumberman. Where practical, what are termed "log drives" are erected for this purpose. A "log drive" is simply constructed by laying two hewed logs alongside each other, in a trail out from the camp to the nearest stream, sometimes five, eight, or ten miles away. These drives are usually prepared early in the fall, and when the first fall of snow comes they are put in condition for use by hauling a drag along between them, which packs down the snow. On this water is poured and allowed to freeze, the result being a rude trough of ice, over which the logs glide down grade with startling swiftness. But these drives are not all down grade. Perhaps half the distances will be up grade, and to get the logs up the mountain, teams of horses are used. After the logs are rolled into the drive, a team is hitched to a log with perhaps 100 ahead of it, according to the steepness of the incline, and in this way the whole string is pushed to the top. It was while working on one of these drives that Sweetwood met with the following thrilling experience:

Terrific Speed.

With a canthook he was to follow the first log as a sort of steerer, whose duty it was to see that all was well. If the log caught fast on any protruding ice, snow, or wood, with his hook he would loosen it so that the trail would come in. When the drive is in bad condition, the steerer always finds plenty to do to keep him busy, but if there is lots of snow and cold whather, the slide is usually all that can be desired, and the steerer invariably has only the monotony of tramping alongside and watching the logs glide along. This was the case during the late cold weather, and Sweetwood, evidently tired with so much tramping, determined to use the logs as a means of more easily getting up the mountain. With the driver of the team away back out of sight, Sweetwood climbed on the foremost log and congratulated himself how much nicer it was than trudging along in the snow. In this pleasant mood he either forgot that when the logs reached the top of the incline and began to descend the grade, their transit suddenly increased, or else he was so absorbed in the pleasures of his ride that he forgot where he was. Be that as it may, however, when the first log went over the incline and began going down, Sweetwood was still on it, and before he could dismount the log was going at such a speed that to even try to get off meant death. In this dilemma all that could be done was to hold on like grim death and await the worst, which to all intents seemed death in some form or other, and most likely a most horrible death. Talk of express trains, electricity, or rapid

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transit in any of its various forms, they are not in it with the way that log trail went down the mountain side. From the summit to the west branch of the Susquehanna, where the drive ended, was at least six miles, and in most places the drive was quite steep. Gathering momentum with every foot of its descent, the log with Sweetwood on it sped on as if shot from some great gun. Trees and rocks were passed with such startling rapidity that they seemed as one solid blurred wall: the snow was only a glare of white, the log drive itself seemed a diminutive line, only faintly discernible, winding in and out like a huge snake. Sweetwood early in the ride lost his hat, and his hair streamed out behind like the tail of a bob-tail horse; the wind sang deafening tunes in his ears and almost blinded him with its velocity, while the frost in the air seemed like hail pellets striking him in the face. There was little time for thought, but even in the few seconds there was, Sweetwood wondered what the end would be.

Sensational Plunge.

Fortunately for Sweetwood, and the only reason that he is alive to relate his experience, the log on which he was perched was a large, smooth one, and glided along comparatively easy with little turning, and never once snagging on any protruding substance. Down, down went log and rider, and in less time than it takes to tell it, the glimmering expanse of the Susquehanna burst into view. Although nearly unconscious, Sweetwood remembers giving one hasty glance towards the river and noted the fact that it was comparatively clear of logs at that point, and the next thing he knew he was plunged into about eight feet of water. Contrary to his expectation of being crushed to death, he was unhurt, save the sickening sensation of the thrilling ride and the shock sustained by his sudden plunge into the river. When he struck the water he was still on top of the log and went under with it, but when he arose to the surface he was alone and within a few yards of the opposite shore. With some little difficulty he pulled himself out of the water, and after recovering to some extent the use of his faculties, viewed with wonderment the scene of his ride, and shudderingly thought of his narrow escape. In his descent he supposed the entire trail of 100 logs was following swiftly after the one he was on, and when plunged into the river he expected to be ground to pieces with the logs. Now, as he stood on the bank of the stream and looked, not another log was in sight, and his wonderment increased. Gathering himself together as well as possible, he sought a sheltered spot, and with dry matches found in an inside pocket, kindled a fire and dried himself and sought composure after his thrilling experience. Several hours later he made

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his way downstream until he found a place to cross, then retraced his steps to the drive and started back to camp. About half-way up the mountain he found an explanation of the missing logs. The log next to the one on which he had been perched had evidently snagged on something in the drive, and its sudden stop had tumbled the whole string of 99 in one promiscuous heap on the mountain side, breaking the drive and tearing up small trees by the root.—(*Globe.*)

Retirement of Mr. S. H, Collins.

We take from the *Pioneer* the following extract :—

"We understand that Mr. Collins, Agricultural Chemist to 'the Government of India, has, owing to failing health, resigned 'his appointment, having given the required six months' notice, 'which expires in April next. Originally, Dr. Leather was 'Agricultural Chemist to Government on a salary of Rs 1,250 'rising to Rs. 1,500 per mensem ; and Mr. Collins was 'Assistant Agricultural Chemist on Rs. 700 to Rs. 900 a 'month ; but a short time ago, when Dr. Leather's five years' 'term of office expired, his agreement was not renewed, as 'Government desired to reduce this establishment. Mr. Collins 'then became Agricultural Chemist ; but with his resigna-'tion the appointment will again fall vacant."

Many of our readers will be sorry to read this, for Mr. Collins has been so useful to us at Dehra Dún in the analysis of forest products and in teaching work, that we shall miss him a good deal. We can only wish him the success at home which, had his health remained good, he would probably have attained in India.

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

January 1st, 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—The importation of Timber and Planks has been :—

	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.
	16,588 Loads	7,923 Loads	12,687 Loads	9,849 Loads
And the deliveries	14,371 ,,	10,455 ,,	12,646 ,,	10,620 ,,
	1895.	1896.	1897.	
	22,200 Loads	23,312 Loads	20,428 Loads	
	18,399 ,,	21,941 ,,	18,410 ,,	

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The year 1897 has, in spite of abnormal obstacles, been a pleasant and profitable one for the Teak trade. Starting on the crest of the great rise in prices established in the previous twelve months, the market flowed easily onwards for the first quarter of the year until overtaken by a certain dulness about April, which while not affecting prices, held things rather in suspense for a time. In July, a better feeling again prevailed, checked in its turn about September by the engineers' strike. Still prices held firm, though business was reduced in volume ; but as the strike went on, and the outlook did not brighten, quotations eased a little in October. A month later, although still unsettled, the end of the strike began to be discounted, and the year ends with a further definite rally in prices and a cheerful hopeful feeling. The Siamese supplies of wood for the coming year are seriously threatened by a maleficent succession of droughts and floods, any interception of supplies being much to be deplored, seeing that without it the enhanced attraction of prices has so far quite failed to bring forward even as much wood as in the two previous years. The check to business caused by the labour troubles is noticeable in the reduced deliveries of the year.

CEDAR. EAST INDIA.—There were several small shipments, which brought fair prices, as although the quality is not much appreciated, the sizes were good. Quotations are from 3½d. to 4d. per foot.

ROSEWOOD. EAST INDIA—There was a moderate demand, which was kept supplied, during the first half of the year, by the arrival of several small parcels at intervals, and these all brought fairly good prices. Stocks have been exhausted for several months, and supplies are now needed to meet the current demand, which has recently been somewhat active, but as the consumption is not large, small parcels of sizeable, good logs would show the best results. Quotations are from £8 to £10 per ton.

SATINWOOD. EAST INDIA.—*Logs.*—Plain wood was only saleable at low prices, which steadily declined as the year advanced and shipments increased ; figury logs brought good prices at first, but supply being in excess of demand, sales became difficult even at lower rates. The import was the heaviest for several years, and there is a fair stock still unsold ; *Boards.*—Only one parcel came forward, but the ample supply of logs more than met all demands. Quotations are from 5d. to 12d. per foot.

EBONY. EAST INDIA.—There was a fair demand and very moderate supply consisting of four small parcels, three of these were sold at satisfactory prices, and the fourth, which has only just been landed, is on hand. Quotations are from £7 to £8 per ton

PADOUK.—In the absence of any material increase in home consumption, the ample stock brought forward, although only increased by the import of one small parcel (20 logs), decreased

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very slowly until November, when a renewed demand from the United States made a very important clearance, and but little now remains on hand; nevertheless, on account of the limited extent of the trade here, shipments should be resumed cautiously. Quotations are from 2s. 6d. to 3s. per foot cube for planks and logs.

Denny, Mott & Dickson's Report.

LONDON, 1st JANUARY, 1898.

TEAK.—Deliveries from the Docks in London during the month of December were :—

	1,571 Loads,	as against	1,941 Loads	for December,	1896.
The landings were	2,438 ,,	,,	1,874 ,,	,,	,,
Stocks in Docks are	13,537 ,,	,,	11,424 ,,	on 1st January,	1897;

but three sailer cargoes just arrived and steamer parcels in course of landing are not included in to-day's official stock of 13,537 Loads, which they would expand to about 18,100 Loads. The yearly totals in London have been as follows :—

Imports to Docks during 1897	...19,878 Loads;	against	23,862 Loads	in	1896.
Deliveries from Docks	,, 18,112 ,,	,,	22,236 ,,	,,	,,

We proceed to report on the general course in Europe and present outlook of the Teak Market as usual at the turn of the the year, as follows :—

The demand for Teak wood during 1897 was well sustained, though the labour troubles in the shipbuilding industry caused the consumption for the year to become 10,500 Loads less than that for 1896; which however, was a record year. The European consumption of 68,000 Loads, however, exceeds by fully 2,000 Loads the average European consumption of the previous five years, and reveals a very large use of this wood for rolling-stock and domestic constructive purposes, as apart from its special value for the naval and commercial shipbuilding.

The Imports were some 78,000 Loads, or some 11,000 Loads (14 per cent.) in excess of the 67,000 Loads imported in 1896. It must however be admitted that a very heavy percentage of this import was of a quality which unfitted it for importation, and much of this inferior wood remains unsold. Wood of reasonably good quality remained steady in price throughout the year at from £12 10s. to £13 per load for floating Burmah cargoes, and £12 to £12 10s. for Bangkok cargoes. Bangkok cargoes have continued to be shipped of better specification and conversion than those from Burmah and have consistently

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commanded the preference over any but the most reliable of the first-class Rangoon shipments; whilst Moulmein shipments have been so generally inferior, as to quite discredit this once preferred timber.

The perhaps inevitable falling away in the quality and conversion of teak logs has caused a further development in the manufacture in Burmah and Siam of planks and "finished stuff" for the European market; and although many of the planks are not of the first class quality and cutting required by consumers here, this class of business is of growing importance, and is causing new and valuable cutting machinery to be erected at the shipping ports, the outturn of which will probably find a good market here, more or less at the expense of the logs, which if displaced by cut stuff for rolling-stock and domestic purposes, will become more absolutely dependent upon the shipbuilding demand than has hitherto been the case.

In dealing with the outlook for 1898, labour troubles may continue to keep back the shipbuilding demand, but many important orders have been held back for some months, and it is difficult to conceive but that the next few months should see an active resumption of good work on the shipbuilding rivers; and this prospect, in conjunction with the large amount of rolling stock construction for home and foreign railways, promises a good demand for Teak, for at least the first half of the New Year.

The actually-assured supplies consist of:—

	On 1st Jan., 1898.	On 1st., Jan. 1897.
Unsold Landed Stocks in Europe,	**some 52,000 Loads;**	**against some 43,000 Loads.**
Afloat and chartered for	**,, 38,000 ,,**	**,, 30,000 Loads.**

The above excess of some 9,000 Loads landed stocks as compared with those of last year may perhaps be looked upon as so inferior as to be unmarketable.

Supplies in Bangkok are absolutely known to be very short, so that for any important supplementing of the present forwards commitments, Rangoon must be chiefly looked to; and there seems no reason to apprehend that this port will fail to supply all that Europe may demand, provided fair rates are paid; and it may be recognised that consumers are quite ready in times of good trade to pay present rates for Teak, if they get good quality and specification; which the better supplies in Burmah should now enable the Rangoon shippers to give, however the culled forests which supply Moulmein may be played out, as apparently demonstrated by the consistently bad shipments from that Port for some years past.

The year 1897, notwithstanding the serious disruption of the shipbuilding industry caused by the Engineers' Strike during the last half of the year, has been a soundly prosperous one to the average timber trader. Prices have been fairly

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steady all through the year ; and the absence of violent fluctuations has been conducive, not only to sound trading, but a fair distribution of profits all round. The volume of business done and the profits realized may suffer in comparison with so exceptionally a good year as that of 1896. but modest traders will be well content if 1898 maintains the same level of prosperity as that of its predecessor, and the same freedom from undue anxiety, which has been a very pleasing feature in the last year's trading.

MARKET RATES OF PRODUCE.

Tropical Agriculturist, January, 1898.

Cardamoms		per lb.	3s. 6d.	to	4s.
Croton seeds		per cwt.	50s.	to	60s.
Cutch		,,	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic,	Madras	per ,,	30s.	to	35s.
Gum Kino	,,	,,	12s. 6d.	to	15s.
Indiarubber,	Assam	per lb.	2s. 0½d.	to	2s. 6¼d.
,,	Burma	,,	1s. 4d.	to	2s. 6d.
Myrabolams,	Madras	per cwt.	3s. 9d.	to	5s. 6d.
,,	Bombay	,,	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
,,	Jubbulpore	,,	4s.	to	7s.
,,	Bengal	,,	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica,		,,	7s.	to	7s. 6d.
Oil, Lemon Grass		per lb.	8d.		
Sandalwood, logs		per ton.	£30	to	£50.
,,	chips	,,	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood,		,,	£4.	to	£5.
Seed lac		per cwt.	70s.	to	80s.
Tamarinds		,,	7s.	to	8s. 6d.

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THE

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A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

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EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN.

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Valuation Surveys.

SIR,

Will anyone kindly correct the following calculations of the growing stock in a forest?

Let the total area = A, the area valued = a; the number of trees of the species to be valued according to classes, = P., Q., R. etc., the number of trees counted according to classes in the area a, = p., q., r

Then P = A multiplied by p. divided by a,
„ Q = A „ „ q. „ „ a,
„ R = A „ „ r. „ „ a,
and so on for each tree-class.

My contention is that that is the only simple method for calculating the total stock according to classes, and that nothing is gained by splitting the area up into arbitrary divisions. The method is quite independent of the condition of the area, the species may be scattered over the whole area, evenly, it may be concentrated on a small portion only, or any intermediate conditions may exist. The paper calculation, based on the proportion the actual area valued bears to the whole area, is in itself perfect, and the absolute accuracy of the result depends on the way in which the surveys were made. These of course should be made over representative country.

If instead of this we divide the area valued into, say, three portions, which we may do in any way, and confine our attention to the first tree-class and call these portions x, y, and z, where x plus y plus z = a, and call the number of trees in these areas, v, s, t, where v plus s plus t = p.

then X = A multiplied by x divided by a,
„ Y = A „ „ y „ „ a,
„ Z = A „ „ z „ „ a,
where X plus Y plus Z = A,
and calling
V = A multiplied by v divided by a,
S = A „ „ s „ „ a,
T = A „ „ t „ „ a,

Then the total number of trees in this class = V plus S plus T = (v plus s plus t) by A/a, = p by A/a = P.

This gives the same result as before.

Now if in the above case it so happens that v/x = s/y = t/z, then the three areas x, y, and z, are exactly similarly stocked, as regards the tree-classes in question, and we may write

P = V by A/X = S by A/Y = T by A/Z.
or, P = (V plus S) by A/ (X plus Y)
or, P = (V plus T) by A/ (X plus Z)
or, P = (S plus T) by A/ (Y plus Z)

(Small letters may be written for capitals in the above six equations.) But if it be not a fact, that v/x = s/y = t/z, then

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none of the above 6 equations are necessarily true, and unless it happens that one of the first three are true, none of the last three can be true, and *vice versâ*. The truth of the 4th depends on the truth of the 3rd, that of the 5th on that of the 2nd, and that of the 6th on the 1st. In any case, what the object of these complications is, is not apparent.

Suppose we take a forest of 10 square miles, and value one square mile, then if we divide the area into two portions,—5 square miles of teak-producing, and 5 square miles devoid of teak,—then, if the ½ square mile of teak area valued contains 300 teak trees, the whole teak area should contain 5 by 2 by 200 trees = 2,000 trees. And since it has been shown by valuation surveys that the remaining area has no teak, the whole area contains presumably only 2,000 teak trees.

To assume that the whole area contains 4,000 teak trees, on the grounds that a specially selected teak area contained 400 teak trees to the square mile, is obviously as wrong as to assume that the whole area contained no teak trees, because another specially selected area of the forest contained none. In this case, as the two areas valued are equal in extent, the mean of the two results will give 400 trees (800 plus 0) (1/2 = 400). Were the areas not equal, this would not be the case.

Again, we have no more right to take the mean of 400 and 800 than of 400 and 0, to obtain a more reliable result. Whether or not we deliberately discard a portion of the valuation surveys on the grounds that they are not representative, there is but one true result obtainable for a forest, whether it be obtained by a cumbersome, piecemeal process, or by more ordinary methods, and there is no method of taking means, which can give a different and true result. A knowledge of this simple fact would save much useless labour.

MANDALAY: C. M. HODGSON.

January 31st 1898.

Cultivation of the Nipa Palm

Under advice from Colonel F. W. Snell, Administrator of this State, I have the honour to trouble you with a request that you will kindly supply me with information regarding the mode of cultivation and utilization of the *Duni Palm (Nipa fruticans.* Hooker's Fl. Br. Ind. Vol. VI-p. 424.) and also where its seeds can be obtained.

I have received a letter from the Conservator of Forests, British Burma, regarding the palm in question in which he writes "The Duni-palm grows in creeks and estuaries and prefers 'brackish water ; it grows luxuriantly in all the Irrawaddy deltas 'and around the estuaries of the Sittang and Salween rivers."

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The Dictionary of Economic Products of India (Vol.-V.- p. 430) gives some uses, but not the mode of cultivation. Will you please therefore kindly supply me with fuller information about the palm, as the Administrator of our State desires to make a large plantation of the Duni-palm on creek and river banks.

JAI KRISHNA J.,
CURATOR OF FORESTS,
Porbander State.

Note.—The seed of the Nipa palm is very large, and, we imagine, germinates easily. We have no doubt but that the Sunderbans Forest Officers would willingly send seed to Porbander to our Correspondent, if asked to. *Hon. Ed.*

Defoliation of Teak in the Central Provinces.

SIR,

The following additional information * regarding the defoliation of teak by a caterpillar during the growing season of 1897 will be read with interest.

"The second flush of leaves of the teak have again been 'entirely destroyed by the same caterpillar and all the teak forests 'in the southern portion of the district (Damoh, C. P.) present '(on 8th. September) a uniformly brown appearance, which 'renders them easily recognisable from a great distance. Bulbuls 'are apparently the only birds to eat this caterpillar, at least I 'have seen no others; but I daresay the cuckoos and the (Note 'fantail flycatcher have also something to say in the matter." furnished by Mr. R. C. Thompson, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests.)

Since the date of the observations recorded in the preceeding note, the teak brought out a third flush of leaves, which flush was also similarly attacked in November; apparently, therefore, three generations of the insect may be produced during a single growing season of the teak.

E. E. FERNANDEZ.

* An earlier note on this subject was published at page 325 of the Forester for August, 1897.

II.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Mechanical Tests of Pyinma Wood.

REPORT BY PROFESSOR W. C. UNWIN, F. R. S.

The plank dealt with, which was about 2¾ inches thick and

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rather exceptionally dry (as the wetness test shows) is described as the timber of *Lagerstræmia Flos-Reginæ*, or *Pyinma*. The colour of the wood is brown or light walnut.

A block, weighing 599·3 grams., was tested for density. The specific gravity was 0·669 and the heaviness 41·77 lbs. per cubic foot.

Some shavings dried in an oven at about 180° F. for eleven hours showed the amount of moisture in the timber to be 13·77 per cent reckoned on the weight of the dry wood.

Shearing Test.—Two tests were made : (*a*) with shearing plane about paralled to the annual rings, (*b*) with the shearing plane about at right angles to the annual rings.

(*a*) Block 69c.

Dimensions, 1·935 by 2·036 inches.
Area sheared, 3·939 sq. inches.
Shearing load, 3,588 lb.
Shearing stress, 910·8 lb. per sq. inch = 0·407 tons per sq. inch.

(*b*) Block 69d.

Dimensions, 1·985 by 1·980 inches.
Area sheared, 3 930 sq. inches
Shearing load, 2,349 lb.
Shearing stress, 597·7 lb per sq. inch = 0·267 tons per sq. inch.
Mean shearing resistance, 754 lb., or 0·337 tons per sq. inch.

Transverse Test.—Two tests were made with rectangular bars on a span of 45 inches.—

Bar 69a.—Width, 3·503 inches Bar 69b,—Width, 3·629 inches
Depth, 2·592 „ Depth, 2·607 „

Load at centre, in pounds	Deflections, in inches.		Load at centre, in pounds	Deflections in inches.	
	69a.	69b.		69a.	69b.
0 ...	...	...	2,000 ...	0·569	0·677
250 ...	0·085	0·106	2,250 ...	...	0·736
500 ...	0·170	0·212	2,500 ...	0·927	0·787
750 ...	...	0·286	3,000 ...	...	1·036
1,000 ...	0·362	0·368	3,500 ..	...	1·256
1,250 ..	...	0·451	3,960 ...	Broke.	—
1,500 ...	0·520	0·526	4,000 ...	...	1·466
1,750 ...	..	0·572	4,398 ...	...	Broke.

Both Bars broke by tension.

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The following are the results reduced :—

Bar.	Co-efficient of Transverse Strength.		Range of Stress, in pounds	Co-efficient of Elasticity.	
	Pounds.	Tons.		Lb. per sq. in.	Tons per sq. in.
69a ...	11,355	5.07	0 to 2,000	1,312,500	585·8
69b ...	12,037	5·37	0 to 2,500	1,125,400	502·4
Mean ...	11,696	5·22	..	218,950	544·1

Compression Test.—Two tests were made : —

Block 69e.—Dimensions, 2·452 by 2·499 inches.
Height, 6·55 inches.
Area crushed, 6·128 sq. inches.
Crushing load, 16·91 tons.
Crushing stress, 2·759 tons per sq. inch.

Block 69f.—Dimensions, 2·418 by 2·490 inches.
Height, 6·50 inches
Area crushed, 6·020 sq. inches.
Crushing load, 16·68 tons.
Crushing stress, 2·765 tons per sq. inch.

Both specimens broke fairly by shearing. The mean crushing resistance is 2·762 tons per sq. inch.

Considering that the wood is not very heavy, its strength is good.

11th November, 1896.

(*Annual Report of Imperial Institute* 1896-97.)

Preliminary Report on two Burmese Turpentines.

By Professor Henry E. Armstrong. F. R. S., &c.

Large samples of *Pinus khasya* and *Pinus Merkusii* have been received by me through the kind offices of the Imperial Institute, and the following are the results arrived at by their preliminary examination :—

The crude turpentine from *Pinus khasya* was a grey, thick pasty mass, containing a quantity of small pieces of wood. That from *Pinus Merkusii* was more fluid and cleaner in appearance.

By distilling with steam, I separated about 13/100ths of its weight of oil from the *Pinus khasya* turpentine, and nearly 19/100ths from the *Pinus Merkusii* turpentine. On a previous occasion, I obtained nearly 17 per cent. of oil from a sample

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of the first-named turpentine. I imagine that the present supply of turpentine was collected under less favourable conditions, and that some oil was lost by evaporation in the case of the sample now under examination.

The original turpentine and the distilled oil in each case have a very slight but agreeable odour, which is even less pronounced than that of French turpentine and distinctly characteristic although indescribable. The two oils are very similar in this respect.

I am satisfied that the oil from *Pinus khasya* is identical with that which I received from the Colonial and Indian Exhibition and examined several years ago, and which I was then led to believe came from the same tree.

The examination of oils of this description, with a view to determine their precise composition, is a matter of great difficulty, and we are but beginning to discover methods. From the experiments I have been able to make thus far, I am satisfied that the oil from *Pinus khasya* is strictly comparable with French oil of turpentine, thus confirming the opinion I arrived at several years ago.

The oil from *Pinus Merkusii* is very similar to that from *Pinus khasya*.

Like French oil of turpentine, both these oils distil within a very narrow range of temperature, near to 155° C., but the oil from *Pinus khasya* appears to contain a somewhat larger proportion of some constituent of higher boiling point.

The two oils are very nearly alike in relative density, *viz.*,—

	P. khasya,	*P. Merkusii*
At 20° C.	·8627	·8610,

They both turn the ray of polarised light to the right, the so-called specific rotatory power being,—

P. khasya	*P. Merkusii*
+36″28	+31″45

The rotatory power of French turpentine is practically always about 36″. Moreover, the *Pinus khasya* oil now examined agrees with that I previously obtained from British Burma in this respect.

Practically, French oil of turpentine and that from *Pinus khasya* exactly correspond in properties. The difference between the oils from the two Burmese turpentines is of such a kind as to be of no practical consequence—they are essentially similar, and the slight difference is due to the presence, in one or the other, of some substance besides the chief constituent.

I am at present inclined to think that the oil from *Pinus Merkusii* may be the more uniform. It will be my endeavour to thoroughly examine the two oils in comparison with French turpentine, and, *if possible*, to discover their exact nature.

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Meanwhile, I may say that both oils are of the highest quality, and that I believe they would serve every purpose for which oil of turpentine (French or American) is used. They even compare favourably with the French oil, which is the highest quality in the market.

The resin left on distilling off the oil would also, I believe, be available for all purposes for which ordinary resin is used.

There is no reason, I venture to think, why India should not obtain whatever turpentine is required from native sources, if the industry can be developed and the cost of carriage be not too great.

I hope later on to submit a more detailed report, if I should be successful in devising methods of separating the constituents of the oils; and, in any case, to obtain results of considerable scientific interest which may throw light on the, at present, obscure relationship between the various oils of the turpentine class.

11*th March*, 1896.

(*Annual Report of Imperial Institute 1896-97.*)

IV.—REVIEWS.

Review of Forest Administration in British India for the year, 1895-96

BY B. RIBBENTROP C. I. E, INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF FORESTS.

Our usual yearly account of the Inspector-General's summary comes unfortunately rather late, but in spite of its lateness we think there is much that is important to record.

Area. During the year 1,544 square miles were added in the Bengal Presidency, 1,086 in Madras, and 199 in Bombay. There were 618 square miles of exclusions chiefly in the Central Provinces. so that the total area of Reserved Forest at the end of 1895-96 (June 30th) stood at 76,482 square miles. The area of Protected forest was 8,347 square miles and that of Unclassed forest 27,682 square miles, making a total of 112,511 square miles of all categories.

Forest Settlement was carried on more briskly during the year, especially in the Punjab, Burma and Madras, but in most provinces the work is nearly completed.

The Forest Survey continues to shew good work and the usual map recording progress is appended to the Review, the red patches on which shew the work of the year. The area surveyed was 5,677 square miles and the total now completed is 39,097 square miles. On the Subject of *Working Plans*, Mr. Ribbentrop says:—

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"Of the total area under the control of the Forest Depart-
'ment, which at the close of the year stood at 78,474 square
'miles, working-plans were actually in force over an area of
'10,670 square miles, or 14 per cent. of the whole. Moreover,
'for a further area of more than 15,000 square miles, working-
'plans were under preparation, so that it is evident that the next
'few years will largely increase the area of forests worked under
'carefully considered plans of working. During the year under
'review, 15 working-plans, dealing with an area of 1,495 square
'miles, were sanctioned by Local Governments, raising the
'total number of plans in force from 50 to 64, whilst 11 plans,
'dealing with 1,670 square miles, were submitted to the Inspec-
'tor-General of Forests for his professional opinion.

'The North-Western Provinces and Oudh continue to hold
'the foremost place in this branch of administration, showing an
'area of 59 per cent. of the total brought under sanctioned work-
'ing, whilst important plans for some 1,000 square miles, were
'either completed or nearing completion at the close of the year.
'Excellent progress has also been made in the Southern Circle
'of the Central Provinces. In Madras and Bombay the control
'of working-plans does not lie with the Government of India, and
'it is not known how far the plans referred to in the reports and
'forms have been sanctioned by the Government. But it would
'appear that in Madras better progress was made than in the
'previous year, and that in Bombay a good deal of work was
'done in all three Circles. The high cost of completed plans in
'the Kanara Division of the Southern Circle, Rs. 545 to
'Rs. 649 per square mile—is remarkable. In Sindh it has been
'realized that the forests have in many instances been overworked,
'and the long delayed formation of a working-plan division is
'a most satisfactory step."

Communications and Buildings. The following account will be read with interest, and especially the part relating to forest tramways. It is not clear whether it has been sufficiently considered in the calculations, which are in some cases against the use of the tramway, that the use of carts is in some of the localities nearly impossible, that very often the number of available carts is very small compared with that required ; and that it may often happen that if carts were used, much more expensive roads would have to be made. Thus, in Striharikota, the soil is a deep loose sand most difficult for carts ; there are no, or almost no roads, and the forest being nearly quite separated by water from the agricultural country, carts would be difficult to procure in numbers sufficient for the carriage of the wood.

Again, in Cuddapah (Ballipalle ?) and in the Anamalais the country is difficult, and road work would be expensive if tracks suitable for the carriage of heavy loads had to be made. In the Casuarina plantations of Nellore, the use of carts would be almost

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impossible, and like Striharikota, the soil is a loose sand. Another year we may hope to have a paragraph devoted to wire tramways: in our opinion wire is the method of transit of the future, only we must get the latest improved arrangements from Europe or America instead of putting up more or less rough appliances as has sometimes been done. We believe that wire is much used in Ceylon and it is certainly used on the Nilgiri Coffee estates: it ought to be excellent for forest works, especially if the gradients can be managed so as not to be too steep.

"On the construction and up-keep of communications a total 'expenditure of Rs. 1,43,800 was incurred, of which Rs. 51,100 'were spent on new roads. Only in Bengal, the North-Western 'Provinces and Oudh, and in Madras were important new road-'works undertaken, expenditure in the remaining provinces being 'but small. Rupees 92,700 were spent on repairs to existing 'roads, the heaviest expenditure being, as usual, in the North-'Western Provinces and Oudh (Rs. 43,000), where extensive 'annual repairs to the roads are required, without which produce 'cannot be brought out of the forests. The construction of tram-'ways for the carriage of produce from the forests to the markets 'has not been developed to any great extent, there being at 'present only some 32 miles of such lines, of which only 28 'miles have been laid. Moreover, where such works have been 'constructed, they have not always proved commercially suc-'cessful as compared with the ordinary means of transport obtain-'able locally. Thus, in Madras, the Anamalai tramway in the 'South Coimbatore District, which has been kept up since '1889-90, is calculated to have resulted in a net loss to Govern-'ment of Rs. 22,000. The cost of carriage by the tramway is 'Re. 1-6-1 per ton per mile, whilst by carts it is estimated to be 'Re. 1-0-8 per ton per mile. The capital on which depreciation 'and interest is yearly deducted would, however, seem to include 7 'miles of tramway, of which 4 miles only are at present laid, and 'it is probable that when the lead is longer the tramway will 'show a profit. Similarly, in the case of the Cuddapah tramway, 'the working of which still shows a slight loss, out of 3 miles of 'line purchased only 1½ mile seem to have been laid.

'The Casuarina Plantation Range tramway in Nellore has, 'on the other hand, proved a complete success during the 11 'years in which it has been working, and the net profit to 'Government during this period is estimated to have been Rs. '23,600. In Changa Manga, where a tramway 4 miles in length 'has been working for some 17 years, the cost of carriage of fuel 'by tramway has been much the same as it would have been had 'country carts, paid at prevailing rates, been employed. But the 'number of local carts is quite insufficient for the work, others 'would have to be imported from elsewhere and the rates would 'certainly rise.

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'The following statement gives particulars of the forest tram-'ways at present working in India, and an endeavour has been 'made to contrast the cost of carriage per 100 maunds by the 'various tramways, with that by other means of transport obtain-'able in the same locality" :—

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total length of tramway.	Gauge.	Description, and weight of rails.	Motive-power.	Capital outlay per mile.	Working expenses per 100 Mds. per mile.	Cost of carriage of 100 mds. per mile by other means in similar localities.
		Changa Manga.		Rs.		
4 miles ..	16 inch	Surface level; no preparation required for laying tram, the direction of which is changed as required.	Bullocks.	6,955	Re. 0-14-3 (includes interest at 4 per cent. on capital outlay, estimated value of wear and tear and working expenses).	Re. 0-10-11.
		Andamans.				
6½ miles ..	2 feet	Steel, 18 lbs. per yard.	Manual labour and draft animals.	9,322	Re. 1-0-1 (includes depreciation on cost of rail material at 10 per cent).	Cart transport pays only where small quantities of timber are to be brought from scattered fellings.
		Sriharikota.				
5½ miles ..	2 feet	Steel, 14 lbs. per yard, with steel corrugated sleepers and wrought steel chairs riveted on full width of sleepers.	Manual labour.	4,295	Re. 1-0-10 (includes interest on capital at 4 per cent. and 6 per cent. for wear and tear).	Re. 1-0-8.
		Kottapatam Casuarina Plantation.				
4 miles ..	2 feet	Steel, 14 lbs. per yard, with steel corrugated sleepers and wrought steel chairs riveted on full width of sleepers.	Bullocks.	10,489	(a) Re. 1-10-0 (includes interest on capital at 4 per cent. and 6 per cent. for wear and tear).	Re. 1-2-6.
		Anamalai.				
7 miles (4 miles and 5 furlongs only laid).	2 feet	Steel, 14 lbs. per yard, with steel corrugated sleepers and wrought steel chairs riveted on full width of sleepers.	Manual labour.	5,261	Re. 1-4-10 (includes interest on capital at 4 per cent. and 6 per cent. for wear and tear).	Re. 2-1-5.

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	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total length of tramway.	Gauge.	Description, and weight of rails.	Motive-power.	Capital outlay per mile.	Working expenses per 100 Mds. per mile.	Cost of carriage of 100 Mds. per mile by other means in similar localities.
		Cuddapah.				
3½ miles (only 1½ mile permanently laid, the remainder is used for lines required temporarily.	2 feet	Steel, 10 lbs. per yard.	Manual labour.	..	(*b*) Rs. 4-8-8 includes interest on capital outlay at 4 per cent).	Rs. 3-4-0 by double bullock cart.

The above tramway material was obtained either through the India Office, Messrs. King, King & Co., Bombay, or from Messrs. John Fowler & Co., Leeds, whose agents in Calcutta have an office at No 89, Clive Street.

(*a*) Comparatively high rate due to greater expense of working tramway in hilly country.

(*b*) Information not available as to the comparatively high cost of working. Doubt is expressed if there will be sufficient material or sufficient steady demand to make the line pay.

Fire Protection.—The year was rather a bad one and many serious fires took place. Still, on the whole, the results were good, for out of 30,631 sq. miles attempted, 27,909 were protected successfully; that is, 8·9 per cent of the area was burnt. The cost of protection came to about 2 pies per acre. On the causes of fire Mr. Ribbentrop remarks:—

"In the Bengal Presidency, 1,187 conflagrations occurring 'in fire-protected forests were attributed to intentional firing. 'In the large majority of cases this was not, it may be assumed, 'done with malicious intent, but in order to obtain new grass 'for purposes of shikar or through mere carelessness. It is 'astonishing how difficult it is to impress upon the uneducated 'native mind the amount of damage that is done by setting 'light to a forest. They will not realize it, and it requires 'time and patience and help from the Revenue authorities to 'educate the natives in this respect and to eradicate inherited habits; but it is evident from the constant increase of the areas which in most provinces escape being burnt without special means of protection, that considerable progress has been made in teaching the necessary respect for forest property. Exemplary punishments are needed only where malice has 'been proved."

Grazing.—An interesting table gives the areas open and closed during the year, from which we gather that of all classes of forests, totalling 112,511 square miles, 33,316 were closed to all animals and 38,419 to browsing animals only. The Inspector-General explains how extremely liberal is the Government

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policy as regards grazing, in a table, which shows that while Rs. 15,04,000 were realized for grazing during the year; nearly as much, viz., Rs. 14,30,000 were foregone.

Reproduction. The following are Mr. Ribbentrop's remarks on this subject. His remarks are followed by a note on the fire question in Burma which is too long to reproduce here but deserves a place to itself which we hope to give it later.

"Our working-plans prove that considerable attention is 'paid to the application of correct sylvicultural principles to 'our Indian forests. The progress in this direction has been 'good, and the treatment under which the principal timber-'producing species most successfully reproduce themselves is now 'generally understood The majority of officers in the high grades, 'and many of those who were educated at the Dehra Forest School 'occupy themselves with the study and solution of sylvicultural 'problems to an extent quite unknown not so very many years 'ago, when these studies were, so to say, the monopoly of 'a few officers in each Province. This growing interest in 'sylvicultural problems, the more general and more scientific 'applications of the principles taught to our officers during 'their technical training may be ascribed to three main causes.

'In the first instance there has been a considerable increase 'in the numerical strength of Divisonal Officers, and in the 'proportion of technically-trained men amongst them.

'The next reason is the great improvement which has 'taken place both numerically and in general efficiency in the 'India-trained staff, more especially in the Provincial and 'Ranger services. This naturally has its effect on the lower 'subordinate class, and the Divisional Officer is less a slave 'of close supervision over the executive carrying out of sylvi-'cultural operations than he used to be, at a time not so far 'back, when he had to personally supervise each thinning, and 'the marking-out of each improvement or regeneration felling.

'The third and by no means the least important cause is 'found in the preparation of working plans and the present 'centralization of their criticism and control. Each of such 'plans, or at least groups, which refer to forests of a similar 'character, contain sylvicultural problems and proposals to 'solve them by practical application of sound sylvicultural 'principles. No doubt sooner or later the valuable information 'now scattered through many volumes will result in mono-'graphs on the treatment of special distinct classes of forests. 'In the meantime we may well be satisfied with the general 'progress made in the study of Indian sylviculture and its 'practical application, and especially with the general interest 'taken in this, the Forester's most important duty; for 'though we have learned much there is still much more to learn.

'Natural reproduction is so gradual and so few exceptional

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'incidents occur, that it serves no practical purpose to record 'progress from year to year. The two main conditions which 'are necessary to obtain a satisfatory reproduction are a per- 'manent protection from fire and from grazing whilst reproduc- 'tion is actually in progress."

Outturn.—The total outturn of the forests in the whole of British India for 1895-96 was

	Government.	*Purchasers.*
Timber c. ft.	6,226,099	40,194,745
Fuel c. ft. ...	18,264,220	90,763,705
Bamboos No. ...	11,092,111	1,29,461,778
Minor Produce Rs.	1,20,529	33,66,978

In addition to the above, produce, etc, of the following value was given away free:

	Rs.
Timber ...	3,09,620
Fuel ...	11,10,350
Bamboos ...	1,04,020
Minor Produce ...	2,99,560
Grass and Grazing	16,87,100
Total ...	36,00,650

Finance.—The *gross* revenue of the year was Rs. 1,70,99,380; the *net* revenue Rs. 77,66,770 which amounts to 45.4 per cent. of the gross revenue, a little larger than in 1894-95 and to Rs. 69 per square mile of land under forest control.

The value of produce given away *free* was Rs. 36,00,650 as before stated so that the net results of the year were

Actual net revenue	77,66,770
Free grants and rights	36,00,650
	1,13,67,420

Mr. Ribbentrop very properly remarks that "these facts show 'the great value of the Government forest estates, apart from 'the revenue realized from them, in supplying the needs of the 'surrounding population."

And yet no account is taken of the indirect advantage to the country in having an assured free or cheap supply of the material which it requires for everyday use. Many forests are worked at only a very slight profit indeed to the Government, but a very large indirect advantage to the governed. We should like to see a step further taken and the advantages which the population living near the forests possesses, extended to that which has no forest near at hand. If the 'fuel and fodder' scheme proposed by Dr. Voelcker were extended to the large areas of those provinces whose forests are in large Blocks only, on their

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outskirts, we might hope that the result would eventually be the restoration to the land of the immense quantity of manure now used as fuel.

Experiments.—we reproduce the following extracts on the resin industry and the india rubber plantations:

"An attempt was made to extend the resin works, which 'have proved entirely successful in the hill forests of the Jaunsar 'Division, to the "*chir*" trees grown in the Saharunpur Division. 'The amount of resin yielded by these trees growing somewhat 'out of their natural habitat was found to be so small that the 'attempt was abandoned. The comparative absence of resin in 'trees of the same species, which produce an abundance at higher 'elevations close by, is a fact worthy of notice. Further experi-'ments will be carried out in regard to this and will also be un-'dertaken in order to ascertain the comparative yield of the 'rubber-trees in different localities. Without such precautions 'large sums of money may be frittered away.

'The Charduar rubber plantation in Assam was enlarged 'by a few acres only. It covers an area of 2,165 acres, and has 'been a complete success so far as the propagation of the rubber-'tree (*Ficus elastica*) is concerned.

'The best method of propagation has been found to be by 'raising plants from seed in nurseries, where they are transplanted 'two or three times and kept until they are some 12 feet high. 'They are then planted out in mounds and are high enough to 'be out of the reach of deer, which destroy small young seed-'lings. Rubber-trees may also be raised from cuttings, but so far 'the information at present available tends to show that the 'plants thus raised are not so hardy, and that they do not throw 'down aërial roots nearly so quickly as the plants raised from seed, and that consequently they take much longer to develop 'and at any given age yield less rubber.

'Experiments have also been made of planting out the young 'rubber in the forks of trees, a method which has the advantage 'of at once placing them out of the reach of their great enemies, 'elephants and deer, and of giving them the necessary light over-'head without the necessity of making extensive and expensive 'clearances in the evergreen forests. These experiments have 'usually failed, principally, it is thought, because too often the plants were placed in the forks of sound trees. In many cases sufficient nourishment was provided to keep them alive, but no inducement was offered to establish a connection with the soil. It is a matter of regret that the experiment was abandoned and that the forest was cleared for a regular extension of the plantation, instead of trying to induce the plants established in the forks of trees to connect themselves with the soil. Further experiments 'seem desirable in this direction. The young plants should, how-'ever, be placed in unsound or girdled trees, or some device, such

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'as hollow bamboos filled with vegetable mould should be 'arranged, so as to enable the rubber roots to develop and reach the 'ground. Once they have done this their subsequent satisfactory 'growth is assured, and it is evident that this method, merely neces- 'sitating the killing out of a few practically valueless trees, must 'be infinitely cheaper than opening out belts in the evergreen forests 'and the clearing thereof for several years, the building of mounds, 'and the raising of large plants. It has been estimated that, with the 'experience gained from past experiments and failures, it is pos- 'sible to plant up an acre with rubber raised from seed at a cost 'not exceeding Rs 40 per acre; and this may be much less if 'grass land is operated upon.

'Fifty rubber-trees, planted out in 1874, had in 1895, at 'the age of 21 years, an average height of 78 feet and an aver- 'age girth of 18 feet at the base. Trees 15 years old were found 'to have an average height of 64 feet with a girth of 9 feet. 'It remains, however, to be proved whether the plantation will 'prove a financial success or not.

'*Exports of Forest-Produce.*—The following table gives the 'amounts and value of various articles exported from India during 'the year :—

Articles of forest-produce.	Quantity in tons of 20 cwt.; in the case of Teak cubic tons.		Valuation at port of shipment in 1895-96.	
	Average of five years, 1890-91 to 1894-95	In 1895-96.	Total.	Per ton.
			Rs.	Rs.
Caoutchouc	473	352	9,91,356	2,816
Lac—				
Button	1,375	1,948	36,29,890	1,863
Shell	5,503	8,134	1,46,31,466	1,798
Stick and other kinds ...	76	58	75,654	1,304
Lac-dye	9	¾	1,705	2,273
Sandal-wood, ebony and other ornamental woods. ...	Information available	not available	9,37,759	...
Cutch and gambier	9,250	9,186	37,96,106	413
Myrabolams	41,672	50,001	40,45,598	81
Teak	50,361	63,516	67,09,744	105
Cardamoms	123	63	1,95,744	3,107
Total in 1895-96 ...	...	133,258	3,50,15,022	...
,, 1894-95 ...	...	134,028	2,93,98,186	...
Difference in 1895-96 ...	...	—770	+56,16,836	...

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The Inspector-General notes that the past ten years have seen the exports of forest produce more than doubled in value as is shown by the following comparison :—

Value of exports in	1885-86	...	Rs. 1,71,00,000
Ditto	1895-96	...	„ 3,50,00,000

Education.—It is noted that 11 officers joined the Department during the year from Coopers Hill ; and that there were 83 students at Dehra Dun.

We will new conclude by quoting Mr. Ribbentrop's remarks on the Forest Administration in native States. We regret, as last year, to see Travancore omitted from reference, also Hyderabad, Kolhapur, Mohurbhanj and others which have commenced forest conservancy. It would surely not be difficult to obtain information regarding these, even though the States do not issue printed Annual Reports.

"Copies of the Forest Administration Reports were received 'from the Mysore, Kashmir, Jodhpore, and Jeypore Native States. 'In Mysore, Mr. L. Ricketts, who retired towards the end of '1895, was replaced by Colonel Campbell-Walker. Owing main-'ly to a slackness in demand for sandal-wood, the forest revenue 'in this State decreased slightly as compared with the results of '1894-95, but, on the other hand, the area of the "State Forests" 'was increased by 141 square miles ; while a commencement 'was made toward systematic management by starting enumera-'tion of sandal trees in all the districts. It is observed that the 'question of forming further considerable areas into "Reserves" 'and "State Forests" is being considered by the Durbar, that 'some little progress was made in preliminary surveys of reserv-'ed areas, but that a large amount of work still remains to be 'carried out as regards demarcation and forest-settlements before 'any great progress can be made in the preparation of work-'ing-plans.

'In Kashmir the net revenue rose from Rs. 3,39,000 to 'Rs. 5,36,360, this large increase being due to an extension in the 'departmental sleeper works. Excellent progress has also been 'made in the estimation of forest areas, in demarcation and in 'boundary surveys, and the Government of India view with 'satisfaction the great advance made in the management of 'the forests during the past five years of Mr. McDonell's admin-'istration. At the same time it is trusted that the importance 'of taking measures to ascertain the permanent possibility of these 'very valuable deodar forests will not be lost sight of.

'The forest administration in Jeypore and Jodhpore con-'tinues to be satisfactorily carried out, though the number of 'browsers shown as grazing in the open forests in Jeypore seems 'to be somewhat excessive, as the figures given in Forms Nos. '54 and 55 show that 78,000 acres of forest were grazed over 'by 153,082 of these animals. Concerning forest conservancy

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in States that do no not issue printed Administration Reports, 'it is to be noticed that Mr. Thompson, lately Conservator of 'Forests in the Central Provinces, has been appointed to the 'charge of the Sirmur State forests, and that the preparation of 'simple working-schemes for the numerous small States surrounding Simla has been commenced."

District Gardens in the Central Provinces. Report for 1896-97.

It is noticeable that so much interest is taken in garden and arboricultural work in the Central Provinces. From the Report before us it appears that there are gardens in nearly all Districts, all apparently doing good work, besides special gardens at Pachmarhi and in the Maharajbagh, Nagpore. They all seem to be able to pay a considerable portion of the expenditure on them, and on the whole, the Revenue of the gardens for the year referred to was Rs. 6,138, the Expenditure being Rs. 11,453. Doubtless, the difference represents much indirect good due in the improvement of gardening, chiefly of vegetables, throughout the Province. To us Forest Officers, there is not very much of interest except the account of the propagation of figs, said to have been recommended by "Colonel Campbell, Conservator of Forests, Madras." We presume Colonel Campbell-Walker is meant, but the procedure reads to us very much like that which we remember to have used some 25 years ago in the propagation of the India-rubber fig in the Darjeeling Lower Hills and which we believe was invented by Mr. Gustav Mann who was at that time engaged in starting rubber plantations in Assam. The following quotation describes the process :—

"A seed bed, 10 feet long by 2½ feet broad should be prepared. The soil, which should first be well forked over to a depth of 18 inches, well pulverised, and mixed with sifted stable manure, should be as follows—one of mould two of sand, one of ashes, one of manure. All these materials should be sifted through a wire gauze sieve. The bed 'should be raised 4 inches above the ground, and the 'surface made perfectly level and smooth. On the top of this 'layer, 1 inch in thickness of stable manure and river sand in

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'equal proportions, should be sifted, and over that a layer ¼ inch 'in thickness of brick or tile dust also sifted. The dried fruit 'should now be rubbed to powder between the hands, and then 'sifted and sown thickly over the brick dust. After sowing the 'seed, a flat smooth piece of board should be gently pressed all 'over the bed, the surface of which should be in this manner 'made as level and smooth as the surface of a billiard table. 'The bed having been prepared and seed sown, it should be water-'ed. A small garden engine should be stationed close to the bed, 'and a very fine spray must be allowed to fall gently over the 'bed till it is well moistened. This can be done by placing the 'thumb of the left hand over the muzzle of the delivery pipe of 'the engine.

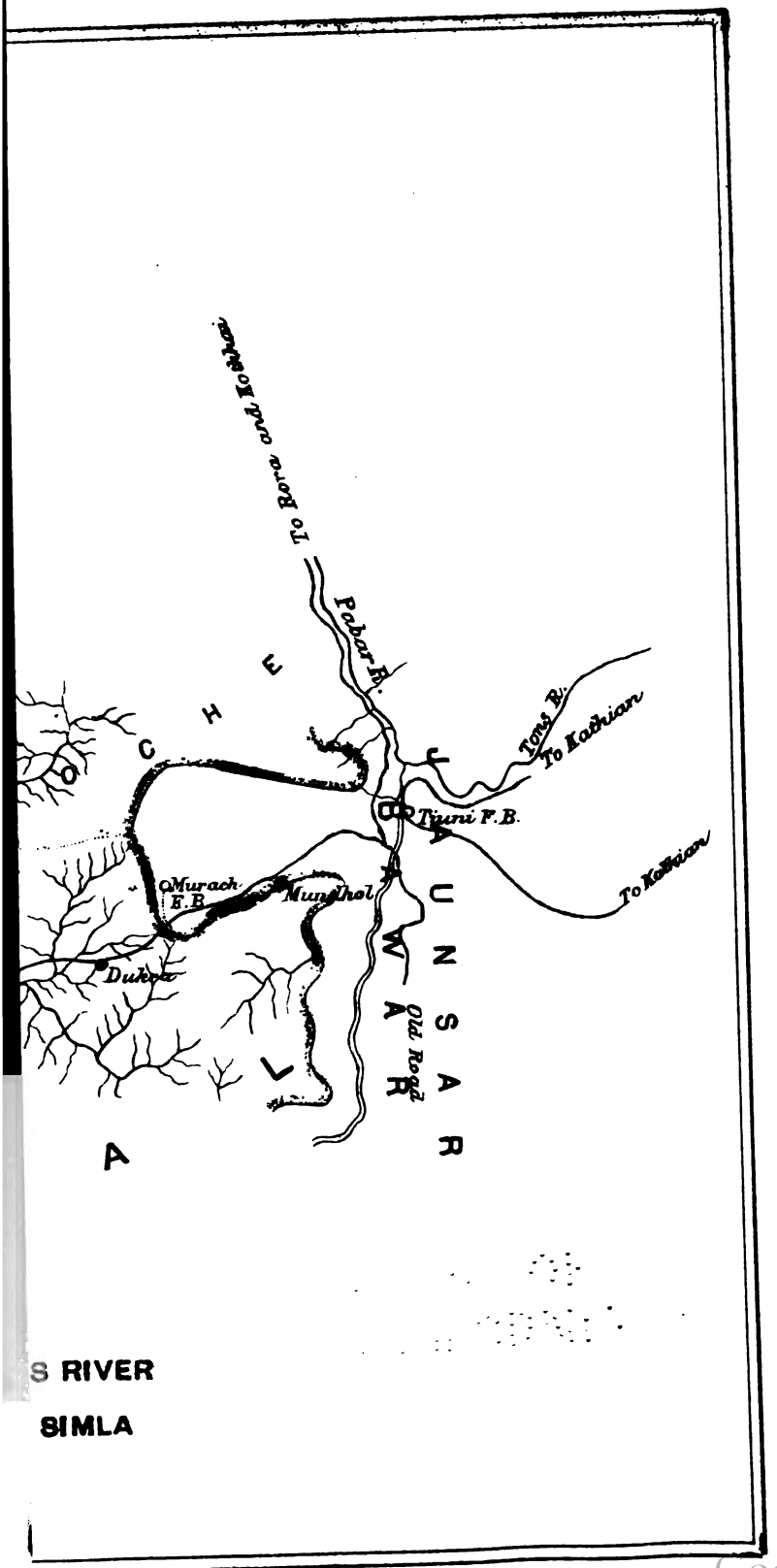
"It is essential that none of the seed, which all lies on the 'surface, should be washed away. A sheet of galvanised iron, or 'any efficient substitute, should now be placed about 6 inches above 'the bed, so that no rain water may fall upon or injure the 'surface of the bed, which must always be kept damp, and in dry 'weather three or even four waterings a day may be necessary.

"In about ten days the young seed should germinate freely, and 'it will be necessary to admit sunlight for from three to six hours 'daily. In cloudy weather the young plants may be exposed 'freely all day, and a very light drizzle will not hurt them; but if 'the upper surface of the bed is once allowed to dry or is broken up by the heavy rains, the young plants will perish. The garden-'er in charge, who should be a trustworthy man, should be directed to remove the covering of the bed morning and evening, and 'give the young plants a free allowance of sunshine daily.

"Several nursery beds should now be prepared. They 'should be heavily manured, and 4 inches of the surface made of 'sifted soil. As, in the case of a seed bed, a ⅛th inch sifted 'brick or tile dust will be found necessary. Into these nursery 'beds delicate young seedlings should be carefully pricked out '1 foot apart with a porcupine quill or a strip of bamboo when '⅛th inch in height. In these nursery beds the young plants 'should remain till 3 feet high, and then be planted out perma-'nently 40 to 60 feet apart in pits 3 feet by 3 feet."

Mr. Stephen, the Superintendent of the Nagpur Gardens reports a difficulty found in propagating the Mahua (*Bassia latifolia*) from seed and recommends the following procedure: "pots were 'filled with equal parts of leaf mould and sand and half part soil, 'the seeds were sown in the pots, very little water being given at 'each watering." He says "Mahua cannot stand re-potting, and 'when the plant has to be planted out permanently, the pot has 'to be buried in the ground." This seems to point to the advisability of using bamboo baskets. We hope Mr. Stephen will continue to record the result of his experience in forest tree cultivation, for his hints may be of great use.

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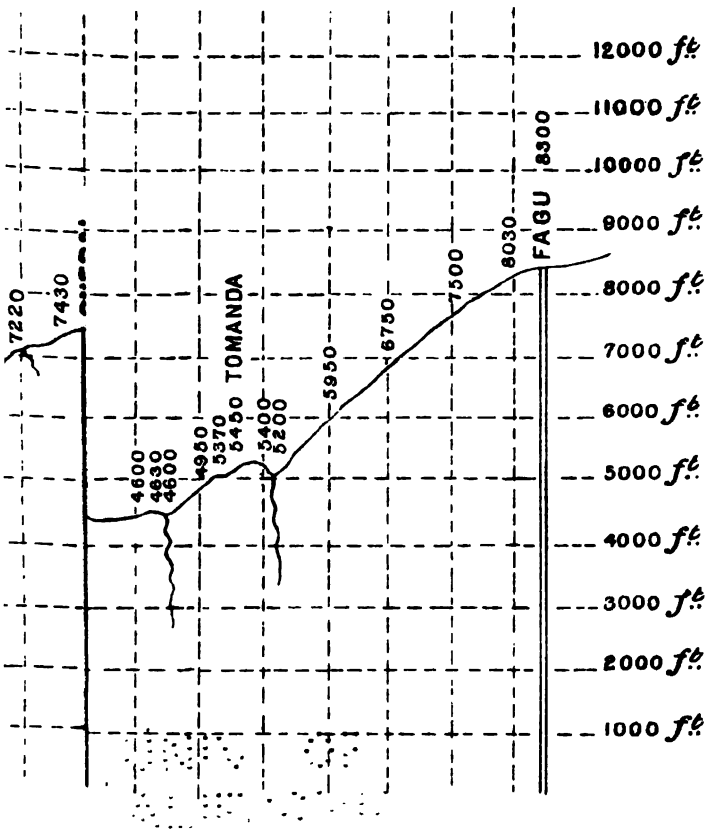
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The Hill route from Mussoorie to Simla.

I have occasionally seen in the "Pioneer," and I think other papers, enquiries about this route, which is, or should be, a favourite one with officers on their way to or returning from Simla who wish to see a little of the Hill country and do a little *shikar* on the way. It is strange that a route formerly so much frequented should of late have fallen so much into disuse and that difficulties should be found by those who wish to know what accommodation there is along it. In Newman's "Railway Guide" there is, or used to be, an itinerary which is misleading and to a great extent wrong. As, therefore, I made the journey in the spring of 1895 and as I am well acquainted with the eastern part of the country traversed, I think it may be not uninteresting to put on record a few notes on the subject.

The way to Mussoorie is well known, travellers leave the train at Saharanpur, travel by tonga or dak ghari to Rajpur above Dehra Dún and ascend thence riding, or in jhampans, to Mussoorie. From Mussoorie to Chakrata, there is an excellent bridle road, which leaves the Mall a little to the East of the Charleville Hotel, and descends first through pretty woods of oak, rhododendron, laurels, etc. and then through fields or patches of scrub forest to (8 m.), the District Road Bungalow of Sainjni. There is no Khansamah, so that travellers (who must previously obtain permission from the Superintendent of the Dún) must have their own servants and supplies. Thence the road descends, partly through cultivated lands, partly through forest of deciduous plains trees, to the suspension bridge over the Jumna. The valley is very hot and between March and November it is advisable to cross it either early in the morning or late in the evening. From the Jumna the road ascends for about 1½ mile to the Dak Bungalow at Lakhwar (16 miles from Mussoorie) where there is a Khansamah who supplies food when required. The village of Lakhwar is interesting as an excellent specimen of hill architecture. There is a picturesque temple with a flagged courtyard. After Lakhwar, the road rises gradually round the somewhat bare slopes of a mountain overlooking the Jumna, to a District Road Bungalow at Nagthat, where a magnificent view of the Snowy Range is obtainable in clear weather. The bungalow is good and can be occupied, with permission of the Superintendent of the Dún, by travellers who have their own servants and provisions. After Nagthat, the road rises again through woods of pollarded oak and rhododendron to the excellent and

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pretty little Dak Bungalow at Chauranipani (11 miles from Lakhwar). This bungalow, where there is a Khansama and supplies are available, lies high up, at an elevation of about 7,500 feet and has a fine view, though the Snowy Range is not so well seen as it is from Nagthat. From Chauranipani the road goes level for a while through oak forest, then descends for some distance and after rounding several spurs more or less at a level, rises steeply over very bare steep hill sides to the crest of the ridge on which Chakrata is situated, descending again to the point (called Charing Cross) where the bridle path from Kalsi joins it and a short distance further to the Dak Bungalow (Khansama and supplies) the very first house in the station, 11 miles from Chauranipani. Thus, travellers who use the Dak Bungalows will march (1) Mussoorie to Lakhwar 16 m.
(2) Lakhwar to Chaurani 11 m.
(3) Chaurani to Chakrata 11 m.
while those who prefer it, and have their own camp arrangements, can travel (1) Mussoorie to Sainjni 8 m.
(2) Sainjni to Nagthat 13 m.
(3) Nagthat to Chakrata 17 m.
Travellers who start from Mussoorie can obtain baggage mules or coolies from the bazar chaudhri, to go the whole distance.

The Military Cantonment of Chakrata lies on a long ridge and the distance from the Dak Bungalow at one end to the beginning of the Deoban ascent or Morrow's Neck at the other, is about 2 miles. Chakrata is also reached direct from Saharanpur by the fine military cart road (70 miles) the stopping places on the way being the following, only one being a regular Dak Bungalow.

	Miles	
Saharanpur to Kalsia	12	Canal Bungalow Mily. Works Bungalow.
Kalsia to Badshahibagh	10	" " "
Badshahibagh to Fatehpur	12	do.
Fatehpur to Tilwari (Kalsi)	10	do. and Dak Bungalow
Tilwari to Saia	10	Mily. Works Bungalow.
Saia to Korwa	8	do.
Korwa to Chakrata	8	Dak Bungalow

From Saia, however, there is the bridle path already mentioned which shortens the route by some 5 miles.

The road from Chakrata on to Simla is practically divided into three sections (1) from Chakrata through the British territory of Jaunsar-Bawar across the Tons to the boundary of the Simla Hill States jurisdiction; (2) through the Hill States to Fagu on the great Simla-Tibet road, and (3) thence into Simla. In the *first* section, the traveller must either camp or use the Forest Department Rest-houses; in the *second* he has no

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alternative but to camp, for the rest-houses, if ever they existed, have disappeared; and in the *third* it is only one long march from the excellent and large Dak Bungalow at Fagu into Simla. In the *first* section, carriage is only obtainable from the villages with the help of the Forest Officers, or, still better, with the assistance of a revenue peon obtained through the Assistant Magistrate at Chakrata who is also the Cantonment Magistrate of the Station. Indeed, all travellers, whether starting from Chakrata, or entering the District from the West, are strongly recommended to write to the Cantonment Magistrate and obtain from him the necessary "parwanas" and, if possible, the services of a peon. Otherwise, they may be delayed, as coolies will not ordinarily go more than one march and cannot be obliged to do more. Travellers are also strongly advised to pay their coolies personally and, if possible, separately, and not to make their disbursements through their servants, for the hill-men will not put up with any levy of "dusturi" and will make complaints if not fully and correctly paid. In the *second* and *third* sections, there are regular halting places and at each of these there is a Chaudhri who is expected to provide carriage to the next, at fixed tariff rates, but as long notice as possible has to be given him to prevent delay.

For the journey through Jaunsar, in former years, the old Simla road was the regular route. This road, which is still open, though very steep and very rough in places, leaves the present regular road at Deoban (5 m. from the Chakrata Dak Bungalow) descends from thence into the Binalgadh and climbs again to (2) Bandrauli, then follows the Tons river but high above it, till it falls to (3) Dharagadh, and thence, after crossing a high spur (Kanda village) descends to the Tons and follows it to (4) Tiuni at the bridge, It is a hot route and not very interesting, so that the traveller is strongly advised to travel by the "Tons road," a fine bridle path maintained partly from District, partly from Forest funds, and passing through some of the finest Himalayan scenery.

On this road the regular marches are

(1) Deoban 5 m.
(2) Mundali 13 m. or Lokar 19 m.
(3) Kathian 8 or 6 miles.
(4) Tiuni 12 miles.

From Chakrata Dak Bungalow the road passes through the Cantonment for 3 miles and then ascends steeply, first through forest of oaks (*Quercus incana* and *dilatata*), then along grassy hillsides and then again through forest of fir (*Abies Smithiana* and *Webbiana*) and oak (the kharshu *Quercus semecarpifolia*) to the Forest Rest house at Deoban. For the use of this and other Forest Rest houses, application should be made previously to the Divisional Forest Officer at Chakrata and dates arranged with

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him, otherwise the traveller is liable to find them occupied by forest officers or by other travellers. The Deoban Rest-house is an old one, built about 1855, and for some time used as a Dak Bungalow, then, as it was no longer required for that purpose, it was taken over by the Forest Department who have enlarged it and who maintain it as an important Forest centre. It is about 9,000 feet above the sea. From both the peaks of Deoban, 'Chakrata View' to the south, and 'Snow View' to the north, fine views of the Snowy Range are obtainable and there are several interesting and pretty walks and rides in the forest around. The next march to Mundali takes the traveller along close to the main ridge of the water parting of the Tons and Jumna rivers through most beautiful scenery with lovely views, the finest of all being perhaps that from the Karama pass (9,800 feet) at the top of the descent to Mundali, where there is a comfortable forest Rest-house. It does not lie on the main Tons road but on a branch from the above-mentioned pass, and the main road is re-gained by either of two alternative lower roads. If the Mundali house should be occupied, the Lokar hut on the main road a little further on, can be used instead. Mundali lies in one of the finest pieces of Deodar forest in the hills and the firs and oaks close by are of enormous size and great height. From Mundali or Lokar to Kathian the road winds round the spurs at the head of the Dharagadh valley partly through forest, but chiefly through cultivation or grassy pasture lands. At Kathian is another forest rest-house hidden in deodar forest but with a fine view. It lies at the head of the Dharmigadh valley leading into the upper Tons, across which are seen the Rikshin and Chansil ranges of Tehri-Garhwal. From Kathian, two roads descend to Tiuni at the Tons bridge (3,000 feet); the chief, the main road, and the most interesting, going down the Dharmigadh through forests of long-leaved Pine to the Tons at Maindrot (a foot-bridge), and then down along the Tons to the bridge allowing a fine view of the meeting of waters of the Pabar with those of the Tons; the other, rather shorter, but narrower and less pretty, going over the hill and down direct to the bridge through a large village called Koti Bawar. The former should be taken in cold weather, the latter in the hot season, as it gives less of the heat of the valley. At Tiuni, a forest Rest-house has been recently completed, but after this point tents are necessary until Fagu is reached. So far, the road is an excellent broad bridle path, all dangerous places being protected by railings, but from Tiuni to Fagu the road is not so good and in places is very bad, so that only a hill pony can be taken without risk. From Chakrata to Tiuni the road is quite well known, but west of the latter place it is less so and it is this part for which information seems wanted.

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The Tons is crossed by a suspension bridge and then the path winds round the hillside above the river till it meets the valley of the Chandnigadh where may be seen the remains of an old timber sledge road which was used in working the forests of Murach at the head of the valley.

The road goes up the valley for about a mile and then crosses the river and ascends by zigzags through a fir forest of the Chir pine (*Pinus longifolia*) to the village of Natang, then through cultivated land to Mundhole (6,250 feet) where there once was a Dák Bungalow. At Mundhole, forest of the Kail pine (*Pinus excelsa*) is entered and this forest extends all the way up to the pass (Pushrar Pass) at an elevation of nearly 8,000 feet. All this latter part of the way, the road is the boundary between the Jubal State on the left and the Government lands of Jaunsar on the right, but after the pass, the Simla Hill States are entered and traversed all the way to Simla. The road from Tiuni to the Pushrar pass is fairly good, through rather steep in places, and those travellers who do not camp at Mundhole, should stop near the pass as it is a very heavy march for coolies or mules right through to Tikri or Butchra. At about 1½ mile off on the right and some 400 feet higher, is the one-roomed forest hut of Murach with a good camping ground but rather far from water. From here, paths go into the deodar forests and up the ridge towards Taroche, Dadi and Raiengarh. Not far from Murach is the place where, in 1870, Mr. Walter Henman, Assistant Conservator of Forests, was killed by falling over a precipice.

After leaving Murach or a camp at the pass, the road descends the hill to the stream and after crossing that stream ascends again to the village of Tikri, in a rather exposed position on a spur; and then winds down under the village through cultivated lands and pollarded forest to the camping ground at Butchra. From thence it goes on down again to a stream and after rounding a very bare spur, chiefly noticeable for its many *Euphorbia* bushes, finally descends to the Shallu river. Thence the Shallu river is followed and finally crossed by a rough wooden bridge and an ascent is made to the pretty camping ground of Piuntra amid streams of clear water and villages with houses of quaint Swiss-like architecture. At the camping ground is the grave of a child of a former Deputy Commissioner of Simla. Piuntra lies at about 4,500 ft. altitude and is consequently rather warm in the hot season, but the neighbourhood is very pretty and attractive.

After leaving Piuntra, a descent is again made to the Shallu river, which the path follows for several miles, over flats and through cultivation and small patches of forest to Neoti, after which it ascends with a long steep ascent, through cultivation or along bare rocky hillsides to Chepal where the camping

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ground among the deodars looks down on the picturesque summer palace of the Ranas of Jubal, a quaint building with overhanging eaves and balconies. Opposite the camp are seen the thick forests of the Chor mountain whose top is only too often wrapped in cloud. To the forest officer, the forest round Chepal is interesting on account of the very fine reproduction of deodar, probably the result of recent measures of conservancy.

The road, after leaving Chepal, is a steady ascent through forest of deodar, pines, fir and oak, but in places it is very bad, more like the bed of a water course than a road that had once been properly made. On the way, a branch road is passed which leads off to the Chor and finally the summit is reached at about 9,600 ft. in forests of kharshu oak and ancient yews. Magnificent views are to be had here and there, but the writer can say but little about them for it was on this march that he encountered the first burst of the monsoon and was consequently marching the whole day in torrents of rain and enveloped in cloud. Paternala, the camping ground, is but a small sloping oasis with space for a few tents only, in a forest of silver fir, and unless necessary, travellers are advised to try and make the double march on to Daha. The road from Paternala to Daha follows down a long spur, for the most part above precipitous rocks and in a forest in which the Kail is the most conspicuous tree. Towards the end, after passing a sort of roadside shelter near a village, a steep descent leads through a beautiful forest of firs and oak, rich with ferns and foliage plants, to the camping ground at Daha. This ground is rather far from the village and supplies and so it is better for those with only small camps to obtain leave to camp in a fruit garden near the village among the apricot trees. Daha is in the native State of Bulsun, whose chief lives in a large village conspicuously visible on a spur below.

On leaving Daha the road winds down the hill, partly though cultivated lands studded with fruit trees, partly though forests of pollarded oak (*Quercus dilatata*) remarkable for the extraordinary growth on them of the parasite *Loranthus cordifolius*, to the village of Bagri and then more steeply to a river which is crossed by a good bridge, near a very picturesque old village perched on a rock in a bend of the stream. Here the road rises again to another village where it crosses the spur and descends to the Giri river which has to be forded below the curious fortress-like houses of Sainj. To those whose marches are short, Sainj will probably be the camping ground, but for those who are in a hurry, it is quite possible to proceed on to the fine Dák Bungalow at Fagu. The road follows the Giri for a while through rice fields and round rocky spurs and then after crossing two rivers ascends steeply up a nearly bare spur to the road near Fagu.

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From Fagu to Simla the road is well known and needs no special description, it is a fine road, nearly level to Mahasu, then descending to the Mashobra tollbar, then level round rocky spurs and through a tunnel to Sinjoli and then fairly level again into Simla.

The marches on this last section of the way are :—

Tiuni to Murách	10 Miles			
Thence to Piuntra	9 „	Daha to Sainj	7	Miles.
Piuntra to Chepal	10 „	Sainj to Fagu	8	„
Chepal to Paternala	8 „	Fagu to Simla	12	„
Paternala to Daha	6 „			

There are no houses to rest in, except at Fagu, so tents are required everywhere. The length of the whole route from Mussoorie to Simla is 146 miles, *viz* .—

Mussoorie to Chakrata	38
Chakrata to Murach	48
Murach to Fagu	48
Fagu to Simla	12
	146

The whole march is an interesting one and gives a good idea of the outer Himalaya, its villages, cultivation and forests, its rivers and rocks. The map and section appended, the latter the work of a traveller some years ago, Captain Richardson, R. A., will help in shewing the varied nature of the country on the section of the road between the Tons river and Fagu.

J. S. GAMBLE.

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

The Indiarubber and Guttapercha Industrfes.

AS APPLIED TO ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING.

Indiarubber or caoutchouc, as it is sometimes called from the original native name cachuchu, was described in 1736 in a communication made to the French Academy as the inspissated juice of a tree growing in South America, and was not introduced into Great Britain until 1770, being regarded up to that time somewhat in the light of a curiosity having no practical value. Even then on its primary introduction, it was used purely and simply as a pencil eraser. It was not until the year 1823, fifty years after its introduction into the Kingdom, that it was, from experiments which had

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been made on it by Mr. Mackintosh of Glasgow, found to be of practical value for its waterproof qualities.

It is obtained by drying the milky juice of trees belonging to various vegetable families. The original supply was obtained from a tree of the *Euphorbiaceæ* family known as *Siphonia elastica*, which is found on the land forming the basin of the Amazon River. It is a tall tree, attaining, as it does, a height of from forty to fifty feet before throwing off any branches and ultimately reaching a height of from eighty to a hundred feet. The trunk is not large in proportion to the height, being from two to two feet six inches in diameter. The foliage is thick and bushy.

The milk may, in reality, be collected at any time of the year, but is, as a rule, tapped during the dry season, which extends between the months of August and February. The method of procedure is as follows :—

An incision is made in the trunk of each tree some five or six feet from the ground, on which, in a convenient position to catch and retain the exudation, are placed rough cup-shaped vessels made of clay. These are then left until the following morning, when the milk is collected from the cups, the quantity of course varying but averaging about a gill for each incision. Fresh tappings are then made and the operation repeated, the tree usually becoming exhausted after the fourth trial. When the milk has all been drawn off in this manner, the exhausted tree must be left for a period of two years to recover itself before being tapped again.

The milk having been collected, is poured into larger vessels, and the drying process, which results in the actual manufacture of the rubber, is commenced.

A number of clay moulds are first made in the shape of bottles, &c., and are then dipped in the milk and hung up to dry over a fire, the principal fuel of which consists of Inaja nuts and which gives rise to a thick greasy smoke. The first dipping having been dried in this manner, the process is repeated until a thick coating of rubber has been deposited on the mould. The oily smoke of the drying fire is responsible for the dark colour of the manufactured rubber.

In India the caoutchouc is obtained from a species of tree known as *Ficus elastica*, which belongs to the family *Artocarpaceæ*. It is indigenous to the forests of Assam and has a rapid growth, reaching a height of from eighty to a hundred feet and throwing out branches to a distance of seventy-five feet in all directions. The larger of these branches throw out roots at their extremities after the manner of the well-known banyan tree which, in fact, belongs to the same family.

The tappings in this case are made in the bark of the trunk at a point where the roots branch out, the latter being generally exposed. The oldest and largest trees are chosen for the purpose and may be tapped fortnightly, the average amount obtained at

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each tapping being forty-five pounds. In India the process of drying is performed naturally by the sun, and hence the lighter colour of the rubber.

Previous to the discovery of the *Ficus elastica*, the principal supply of rubber from the East was obtained from the *Urceola elastica*, which belongs to the family *Apocynaceæ*, and is found in the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, and Java. It is a thick trailing vine, sending out roots from every joint and climbing the trunks of trees.

The amount of caoutchouc contained in the original milk varies considerably from many causes, such as the time of year, age of the tree, &c., but the average quantity obtained is 45 per cent.

Chemically, caoutchouc is a blend of hydro-carbons. Faraday's analysis showed a percentage of 87·2 carbon and 12·8 hydrogen, the formula being $C_4 H_7$. The composition, however, varies in different samples. Its specific gravity is about 0·93, and its properties are elasticity, imperviousness to water, alcohols, acids and alkalies; and last but not least, non-conduction of electricity. It is, however, permeable to gases, the following table representing the velocities of various gases through it.

Nitrogen	1·000	Marsh gas ...	2·143
Carbonic oxide ...	1·113	Oxygen ...	2·556
Air	1·149	Hydrogen ...	5·500
Carbonic Acid ...		...	13·585

It is soluble in benzol, coal tar, naphtha, bisulphide of carbon, chloroform, oil of turpentine and other oils.

Now as to its preparation for commercial use, I intend to deal only with that section of the various processes which is involved in its preparation for electrical purposes.

A very valuable property of Indiarubber and one which has been a great deal made use of in the manufacturing processes, is that of adhesion between two freshly cut surfaces.

The earliest experimental treatment of this substance was made by Mr. Hancock who endeavoured to avail himself of the last mentioned property. His apparatus consisted of a small hand mill or hollow wooden drum in which was revolved a cylinder of the same meterial. The exterior surface of the latter and the interior of the drum were fitted with spike separators and sharp cutting edges. This had the effect when charged with rubber between the two cylinders and the inner one revolved, of cutting up the crude natural lumps of rubber into fine shreds, which, however, reunited and formed one homogeneous mass.

This crude invention eventually led to the adoption of the "mastication" process, as it is called, for the primary preparation of the rubber. By this process the rubber is freed from the impurities imparted to it by the natives during collection,

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and is fashioned into large oblong blocks, six feet in length, twelve to thirteen inches in width, and seven inches thick.

There is some considerable heat evolved in the process, and the rubber so treated is in consequence more subject to atmospheric influence after treatment.

After passing through the process of mastication the rubber has next to be purified, and this is effected by cutting it up into very small slices, and stirring it together in warm water in order to wash out the dirt and impurities. After the first bath it is dried by spreading it on an iron plate heated by means of steam. It is turned over from time to time whilst on this plate, in order to get rid of any adhering particles, and is then again subjected to the washing process, this time being passed between two rollers under water. These various cleansing processes are then repeated until the resulting water shows no sign of impurities.

Having been finally washed and dried, it is next subjected to the tender mercies of a kneading machine. This consists of a horizontal cylinder pierced by a shaft carrying a few rows or transverse cars which rotate against a series of fixed teeth with sharp chisel edges. This machine has the effect of expelling any moisture or air which may be retained in the pores, and also of kneading up the rubber into a homogeneous mass. The rubber, during the kneading process, is usually passed through a series of these machines, the last of which sometimes consists merely of a shaft revolving in a corrugated cylinder.

The rubber is then subjected to hydraulic pressure, and is thereby converted into blocks. With this substance the maximum pressure exerted during the process is maintained until the rubber cools, when it retains its form.

From the blocks thus made it is cut into sheets and strips as occasion requires The cutting may be effected in various ways. One mechanical device consists of a straight steel blade, which is caused to vibrate rapidly to and fro in a horizontal plane, the rubber block being advanced to it by a leading screw in a similar manner to the slide rest of a lathe. The cutting edge is lubricated by a continuous jet of cold water which is directed on to it.

We have, however, in the electrical profession, to deal more especially with what is known as vulcanized rubber and ebonite, and I will, therefore, pass on to a description of the processes involved in its manufacture.

Vulcanization, in the true sense of the term, consists in combining sulphur with the rubber, whereby its sphere of usefulness is greatly extended. The process was discovered and patented in 1843 by Mr. Hancock, and consisted in fusing a quantity of sulphur in an iron vessel and immersing the pure rubber in the sulphur until it reached saturation point. The

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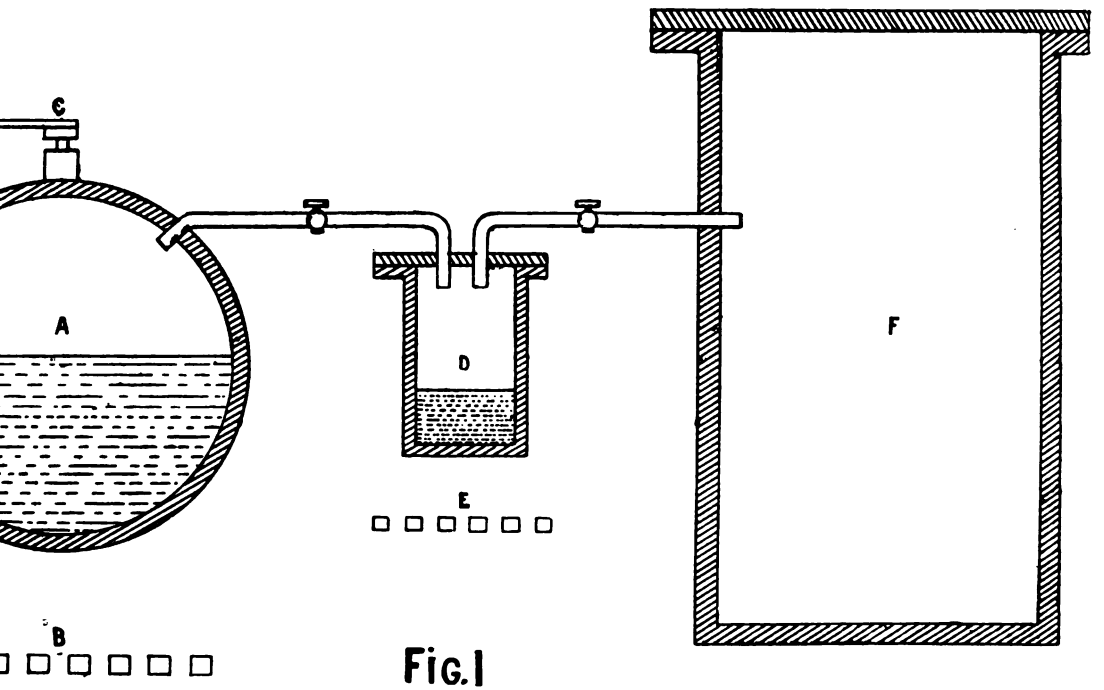


Fig. 1

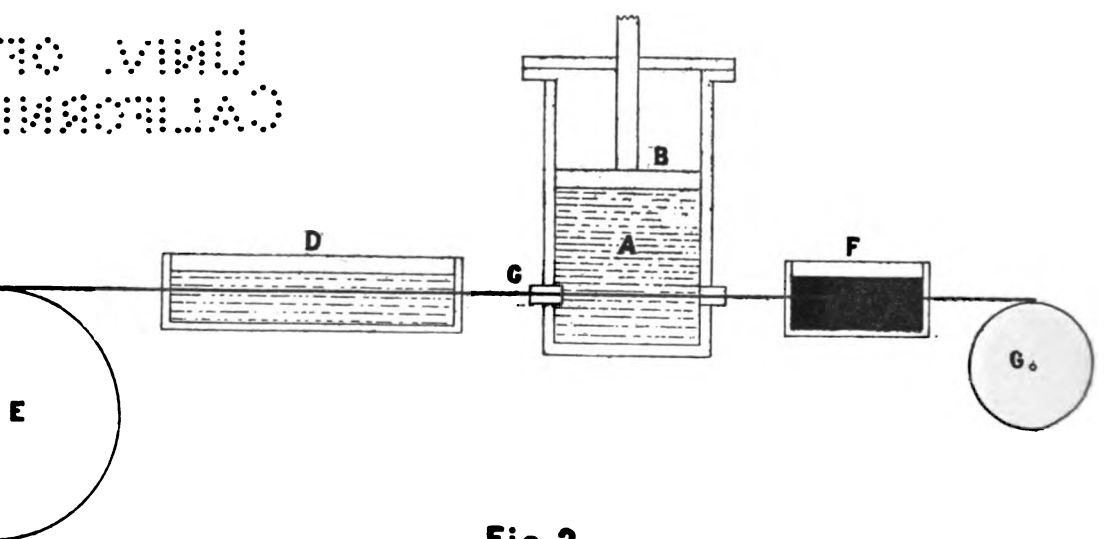


Fig 2

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temperature was then increased to 270° or 280° for a period of about one hour, and the vulcanization was effected.

There was, however, a lack of homogeneity about the substance thus produced, and an apparatus was constructed, as shown diagramatically in Figure 1, by which the temperature and conditions could by properly regulated.

In this apparatus steam is used as the heating agent, and the temperature is regulated by varying its pressure. A (Figure 1) is the boiler used for generating the steam. It is heated by the furnace B and is provided with a safety valve C. D. is an iron retort heated by the furnace E and containing the sulphur. F is a vessel communicating with the other two by a system of pipes and stop cocks, and containing the rubber to be vulcanized. The process is as follows:—Steam is first generated in the boiler A and at such a pressure as to register a temperature of about 270° F. The sulphur retort D is then heated in order to vaporize the sulphur. The stop cocks are then opened and the mixture of steam and sulphur vapour passes over into the chamber F which is provided with a thermometer in order that the temperature may be regulated to a nicety. The operation takes from half an hour to two or three hours to perform, according to the thickness and quantity of the material to be dealt with.

The following is an excerpt from the wording of Mr. Hancock's patent:—

"If sheet caoutchouc, one-sixteenth of an inch thick is continued in sulphur at 350° to 370° from ten to fifteen minutes, the change before alluded to is produced; or if, instead of so high a temperature, the sulphur is raised only from 310° to 320° and the caoutchouc immersed in it from fifty to sixty minutes, the result will be much the same; and if continued for two hours at the same temperature, the effect will be proportionally increased; and if continued longer, the caoutchouc becomes of a darker colour, and nearly loses its property of stretching; and if carried still further, turns nearly black, and has something the appearance of horn, and may be pared with a knife similarly to that substance."

As a matter of fact in the case of the vulcanized rubber used as insulation for electric cables and wires, the sulphur is first blended mechanically with the rubber in the form of powder. This is done in the masticator. Other ingredients, such as French chalk, &c., are also added, the quantity varying with the ultimate quality of rubber required. The compounds are then rolled out into sheets, and having been applied to the wire or cable in the form of tape, are vulcanized afterwards.

Vulcanized rubber differs somewhat in its properties from the pure variety. As regards the influence of temperature on it for instance, the pure rubber, when its temperature falls to

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32° or lower, becomes hard and brittle and loses its elasticity. Again, on the other hand, if heated to 248° F., it commences to melt; and, if the temperature be increased to 398° F., its nature becomes changed and it remains a viscous sticky mass.

Vulcanized rubber is not susceptible to these changes of temperature, being unaffected by cold and only becoming harder in consistency when raised to temperatures of 300° F., and upwards.

In process of vulcanization the rubber also loses its property of adhesion, but remains in a better condition to stand the action of water, acids, alkalies, &c.

As to its property of elasticity, this is rather improved by the process as the following tests made by a certain manufacturer will show: A cylinder of rubber, six inches in diameter, six inches in length, and pierced longitudinally by a one-inch bore, was subjected to pressure. Half a ton brought its depth down to $5\frac{1}{16}$ inches, one ton to the same, a ton and a half to $4\frac{9}{16}$ inches, two tons to $4\frac{3}{16}$ inches, two and a half tons to $3\frac{13}{16}$ inches, three tons to $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches, three and a half tons to $3\frac{1}{13}$ inches, and four tons to three inches. This final pressure was then maintained for forty-eight hours and the block shortly after its release returned to its original dimensions.

Various foreign substances, such as chalk, antimony, magnesia, lead, &c., are frequently introduced during the mastication process as mentioned before, in such quantities as may produce the quality of rubber required. Their effect is to diminish the elasticity to a certain extent and also to increase the weight.

The familiar red rubber of commerce is made in the following manner: Finely powdered sulphide of antimony is boiled with an alkaline carbonate in water, a slight excess of hydrochloric acid being added, with the result that an orange-coloured double sulphide known as kermes mineral is formed. The latter is mingled with the rubber during mastication in the usual manner and subjected to a temperature of 280° F.

Ebonite or vulcanite, as it is sometimes called, is the substance obtained when the vulcanization process is carried on at a higher temperature. It is black and hard with but little elasticity, and can be worked with ordinary cabinet makers' tools. It takes a good polish and is invaluable in the manufacture of electrical apparatus.

The following recipés are given by Messrs. Munro and Jamieson for the composition of ebonite and vulcanized rubber

Hard, good quality ebonite :—

Best Para rubber	...	...	2 parts by weight.
Sulphur	...	...	1 part „ „

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American ebonite :—

Rubber	...	... 12	parts by	weight.
Sulpher	...	... 8	„ „	„
Whiting	...	... 1	part „	„
Wash	...	... 1	„ „	„

Soft vulcanized Indiarubber :—

Para Rubber	...	... 7·5	parts „	„
Sulphur	...	... ·75	„ „	„
Lime ...	...	... ·01	part „	„
Whiting	...	... 7·5	parts „	„
French Chalk	...	... 1·25	„ „	„
Litharge	...	... 1·5	„ „	„

We now come to the second part of the subject, *viz.*, the consideration of guttapercha. This substance was simultaneously introduced into Europe by Dr. Montgomery, and Messrs D'Almeida and Sons, of Singapore, in 1843. It is, like rubber, the inspissated juice of a tree, *Isonandra Gutta*, which is found in Singapore, the Malay Peninsula, and all the principal islands of the Eastern Archipelago. It belongs to the family *Sapotaceæ*, and grows to a height of seventy feet. The diameter of the trunk, unlike that of the rubber-bearing trees, is large in proportion being sometimes six feet. The wood of the tree is of a soft and spongy nature and marked longitudinally at a point just below the bark by black lines which indicate the channels containing the juice.

On its first introduction when the demand was urgent, the plan (a very wasteful one) adopted by the natives for its collection was as follows: The trees were cut down at the root, and circular channels or incisions were made round the bark of the trunk at distances of from twelve to eighteen inches apart. From these, the juice exuded and was collected in any handy vessels such as the shells of cocoanuts. After an exposure of a few minutes in this manner, the juice commenced to coagulate and was then collected by hand and kneaded into lumps. The amount collected from each tree, in this manner, averaged fifteen pounds. The milk, however, is now obtained from incisions made in the bark of living trees and is kneaded into lumps as previously described. In some districts where the supply is large it is conveyed in bamboos to what is known as the "boiling house" where any aqueous portion is driven off by heat.

Its composition is similar to that of caoutchouc. It is a hydrocarbon containing about 90 per cent. of carbon and 10 per cent. of hydrogen. As imported, however, it contains many impurities, such as soft resin, vegetable fibre, ash, and moisture and is purified by extraction, the crude mass being dissolved in a suitable solvent, the guttapercha may then be precipitated by the

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addition of alcohol, under the influence of which it forms as a milk-white deposit.

In its physical properties it much resumbles caoutchouc. It is soluble in bisulphide of carbon and choloroform, and also with the aid of gentle heat in benzol and oil of turpentine. A peculiar property of guttapercha and one which debars it to a certain extent from use in positions exposed to atmospheric influences is that of oxidation. When exposed to the air for any length of time its outer surface becomes brittle and resinous.

An examination under the microscope shows a porous construction, and its specific gravity is about 0·97 probably from this cause. It is very pliable and softens with a rise of temperature; but, within certain limits, returns to its original condition on cooling.

On its reception by the manufacturers it is first subjected to the following purifying process. The lumps are sliced very fine by a revolving disc driven by machinery and carrying a series of knife edges arranged after the manner of blades in a plane. The thin slices so produced are then immersed in a tank of warm water and thoroughly stirred to dissipate the impurities laid bare by the slicer. The guttapercha floats on the surface of the water and the impurities fall to the bottom. Being now in a somewhat soft condition owing to the warmth of the water bath, it is next submitted to a machine known as the "teaser" which resembles, in principle, the masticator used for rubber. This is driven at a speed of 800 revolutions per minute, and has the effect of tearing the guttapercha into shreds. The latter fall into another water bath and are again washed as before. They are then submitted to a warm bath to soften them, and are afterwards treated by a kneading machine which again resembles that used for caoutchouc and which has the effect of blending them into a homegeneous mass. The guttapercha thus treated is then ready for use.

The method of applying it as an insulating covering to electric cables and wires is illustrated diagramatically in Figure 2 where A is a cylinder containing the molten guttapercha, and heated by a steam jacket not shown in the figure; B is a piston used to exert a pressure on the guttapercha in A; C is a die through the centre of which passes the wire or strand to be covered, and through which, on all sides of the core, the molten guttapercha is forced by the piston; D is a long trough of cold water through which the covered wire passes in order to cool the percha and render it firm before reaching the drum E on which it is wound; F is a tank of hot Chatterton's compound, which is applied before the guttapercha; and G is the drum of bare wire which has to be coated.

The material is also worked up in the form of sheets by passing it between sets of long steel rollers adjusted to the required gauge.

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Guttapercha, like India rubber, may be vulcanised by the addition of sulphur.

Being in such universal demand it is somewhat expensive, and inferior qualities have been obtained from the Balatta tree which is indigenous to British Guiana, and may be tapped every two months, and also from a tree found along the line of the Western Ghauts.

J. WRIGHT.

In "Indian and Eastern Engineer."

January 1898.

The Camphor Tree.

An account of the range, cultivation, uses and products of the camphor tree (*Cinnamomum Camphora*) is given in a circular No. 12 just distributed by the United States Department of Agriculture division of botany and is thus commented upon by "Nature." Notwithstanding the comparatively narrow limits of its natural environment the camphor tree grows well in cultivation under widely different conditions. It has become abundantly naturalized in Madagascar. It flourishes at Buenos Ayres. It thrives in Egypt, in the Canary Islands, in south-eastern France and the San Joaquin Valley in California where the summers are hot and dry.

Large trees, at least two hundred years old, are growing in the temple courts at Tokyo, where they are subject to a winter of seventy to eighty nights of frost, with an occasional minimum temperature as low as 12° to 16° Fah. The conditions for really successful cultivation appear to be a minimum winter temperature not below 20° Fah. 50 inches or more of rain during the warm growing season, and an abundance of plant food, rich in nitrogen. In the native forests in Formosa, Fukien and Japan, camphor is distilled almost exclusively from the wood of the trunks, roots and larger branches. The work is performed by hand labour, and the methods employed seem rather crude.

The camphor trees are felled, and the trunk, larger limbs, and sometimes the roots are cut into chips, which are placed in a wooden tub about forty inches high and twenty inches in diameter at the base, tapering towards the top like an old fashioned churn. The tub has a tight fitting cover, which may be removed to put in the chips. A bamboo tube extends from near the top of the tub into the condenser. This consists of two wooden tubs of different sizes, the larger one right side up, kept about two-thirds full of water from a continuous stream which runs

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out of a hole in one side. The smaller one is inverted with its edges below the water, forming an air-tight chamber. This air chamber is kept cool by the water falling on the top and running down over the sides. The upper part of the air chamber is sometimes filled with clean rice straw, on which the camphor crystallizes, while the oil drips down and collects on the surface of the water. In some cases the camphor and oil are allowed to collect together on the surface of the water, and are afterwards separated by filtration through rice straw or by pressure. About twelve hours are required for distilling a tubful by this method. Then the chips are removed and dried for use in the furnace, and a new charge is put in. At the same time, the camphor and oil are removed from the condenser. By this method twenty to forty pounds of chips are required for one pound of crude camphor.—

Scientific American.

A Forestry School in America.

We read in the "Forester," the American Forest Journal hitherto published and edited by Mr. John Gifford, of Princeton, New Jersey, and now taken over by the American Forestry Association, whose Head-quarters are at Washington, that a School of Forestry will shortly be opened at Biltmore, North Carolina, by Mr. C. A. Schenck, the Superintendent of the Forestry Department in that State. At the School, practical and theoretical instruction will be given to those who want to take up Forestry as a profession.

Departmental Examinations in the Central Provinces.

A correspondent draws our attention to the omission from our Part VIII in the January No. of the following :—

December 18th, 1897.

PASSED IN FOREST LAW.

Amrit Lal Chatterji, Forest Ranger (*with credit*).
Mr. F. W. Wightman, Forest Ranger.
P. Shankar Nath, Forest Ranger.
Chhoga Lal, Forest Ranger (*with credit*).

IN REVENUE LAW.

Amrit Lal Chatterji, Forest Ranger.
Mr. F. W. Wightman, Forest Ranger (*with credit*).
P. Shankar Nath, Forest Ranger.
K. Rama Rao, Forest Ranger (*with credit*).

IN PROCEDURE AND ACCOUNTS,

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K. Rama Rao, Forest Ranger (*with credit*).

The omission was due to non-receipt of Part III, Provincial Notifications, of the Central Provinces Gazette, in which the above appeared.

Obituary.—Mr. W. J. Lane-Ryan.

We regret to have to announce the death, from consumption, at Dehra Dún, on the 7th February, of Mr. W. J. Lane-Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests on the Burma Provincial List. Mr. Lane-Ryan joined the Burma Forest Department in 1888 and in 1891 went to the Forest School whence he passed out in 1893. At the time of his death he was in the second grade and was 32 years of age. He was a good officer and was very much liked both at the Forest School and in Burma and his sad death at so early an age is a distinct loss to the Forest Department. He was a keen volunteer and rose to the rank of Sergeant in the Dehra Dún Mounted Rifles. He gained numerous prizes in the Volunteer Sports at Dehra, both in 1892, and again in 1895, the principal of which were the Harington Cup for the winner of most events, value Rs. 100. For his services in Burma at the time of the annexation he was awarded the Burma medal, which was presented to him by the Inspecting Officer at a full parade on the 30th October, 1891.

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

February 3rd, 1898.

East India Teak.—The deliveries in January have amounted to 2487 loads as compared with 1777 loads in this month last year. The available floating cargoes have been firmly held at prices which again put them above buyers' reach for the moment, but the final end of the Engineers' strike and the consequent setting to work again at full power is reckoned on to bring about the necessary further improvement. Rates in London in the meantime for landed stock have hardly been so buoyant as before Christmas.

Rosewood.—East India is wanted and smalls lots of good logs would sell well.

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SATINWOOD.—East India—Stocks are sufficient for the limited demand.

EBONY.—East India—The demand is quiet, but there is only one parcel on hand.

PRICE CURRENT.

Indian Teak	per load	£10	to	£15
Rosewood	„ ton	£8	to	£10
Satinwood	„ s. ft.	5d	to	12d.
Ebony	„ ton	£7	to	£8

Denny, Mott & Dickson's Report.

LONDON, 1ST FEBRUARY, 1898.

TEAK.—The landings in the Docks in London last month were 2,408 loads as against 898 loads for the corresponding month of last year, and this importation was practically counterbalanced by the deliveries from the Docks, which totalled 2,353 loads, as against 1,662 loads for January, 1897. The Dock stocks are, therefore, practically the same as at the commencement of this year, and analyse as follows :—

	10,579	Loads of Logs	as against	8,979	Loads	at the same date last year.	
	2,944	„ Planks	„	1,591	„	„	„
	14	„ Blocks	„	90	„	„	„
Total	13,537	Loads	„	10,660	Loads	„	„

Prices for Teak have been very firm during January, and the Continental demand has exhausted nearly all the available floating cargoes of a handy size, whilst there is scarcely a Bangkok floating cargo left in first hands. The collapse of the Engineers' strike is already causing a good demand from the shipbuilders, and good wood is sure of a brisk market for some time. Inferior wood remains difficult to move, and this fact is producing rumours of financial troubles in connection with one of the chief shippers of this class of timber, which should serve to check the speculative importation of wood which is unsuitable to the needs of either shipbuilding or rolling stock consumers.

Business during January rather dragged, as is generally the case in the first month of the year. Prices were well maintained in all directions, and the collapse of the Engineers' strike caused the month to close very hopefully, as brisker trade must result from the settlement of so serious and protracted a dispute.

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VOL. XXIV] [No. 4.

THE

INDIAN FORESTER,

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY,

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL.

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN.

APRIL, 1898.

MUSSOORIE:

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THE
INDIAN FORESTER.

Vol. XXIV.] April, 1898. [No. 4.

Teak Plantations.

I send the following remarks on teak plantations for whatever they may be worth :—

1.—I have seen nearly all the yas in the Ataran valley in Tenassarim, (over 300). They are certainly most successful from a sylvicultural point-of-view, in fact rather too sucessful to pay well. It is a fact that many of the teak are growing in too moist places, and the immature wood is soft and soon decays, but we cannot yet say whether the quality will improve or not as the trees mature.

2.—It is also a fact that some of the trees get too much light and flower at an early age, but it cannot be laid down that such trees will not, in the end, make good marketable timber. I doubt if trees grown by selection clearings, and subjected to frequent fires, will turn out better than the average ya-grown tree.

3.—If there are to be no yas and no fires in the reserves, there will be very little teak reproduction in the moister forests of Tenasserim. There are very few seedling trees up to 5 or 6 years old in the fire-protected area of the reserves. The difference between the fire-lines and the area outside, on the one hand, and the so-called protected area on the other, is highly instructive. The best reproduction I have seen was on the fire-lines round the Kyunchoung Reserve. Again, in the north of the Dali Reserves, while the reproduction was poor inside the fire-lines, over exactly similar ground adjoining on the outside it was all that could be desired as far as numbers went.

4.—If we have fire protection in very moist forests, we must have plantations in some form. There is no doubt that yas are expensive, but with improved methods these expenses might, I think, be much reduced. It must be borne in mind that whatever store of luck awaits us with natural regeneration, the ya system, by making small areas with relatively large outer boundaries, scattered far away from other teak areas, will even-

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tually considerably increase the spreading borders of the teak area, and must proportionately increase the natural regeneration.

5.—One of the chief reasons why yas have been so expensive is, that a very large number of plants per acre are grown and tended. This number in Ataran was 2,420. Formerly, the trees had been planted in various ways, in lines at various distances apart; latterly they were planted in lines only 6 feet apart, with the trees 3 feet apart in the lines. The result of this is to make the creeper-cutting very expensive.

6.—Unless the lines are very far apart (25 feet or so), the bamboo and weed-clearing would not, however, be proportionately decreased by reducing the number of trees, to say, 800 or 1,000, as it would still be necessary to cut away almost everything for the first three years. But if we are content with only twice the number of heathy trees per acre that one ever gets by natural regeneration, in other words, ten times the number got on the average, we can make the yas far less expensive than they are now.

7.—An acre will not hold more than 40 to 50 large teak trees. By starting with trees in pairs, each pair ten yards apart, and the trees in each pair about a yard apart, and then cutting away the worst tree in each pair in a year or two, there would be about 49 trees per acre left. The reduction in weeding expenses would be very great, and there would besides be a good mixture of bamboos, etc., between the teak trees. I believe it to be everywhere acknowledged that there ought to be a good undergrowth of bamboos, etc., if teak is not mixed with other trees. As matters stand at present, it is not fair to compare the relative cost of natural regeneration with that of yas, because not only are yas far more successful, but a large part of their expenses are incurred in carefully weeding trees that will never be required, and in cutting away these very trees a few years afterwards.

8.—As it is, the number of failures on suitable ground is not often 50%, and it is only reasonable to suppose that if the cultivators were given a smaller number of trees to grow, they would do them better. We want to produce, as cheaply as possible, 50 trees to the acre, and what the object of growing 2,420 is, I fail to see. As a matter of fact, some of the yas in Ataran which were considered so bad that the cultivators were not paid for them, are now excellent mixed teak forest, which we should be more than satisfied with had they been produced by natural regeneration. The trees in these "bad yas" are particularly healthy.

9.—It may be observed in conclusion that the teak is a very bad nurse tree, and teak should never be planted thick, as we plant the Scotch pine in Europe, to force up the main shoots and kill off the side branches. It gives no shade in the

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hot weather. When grown thick the young trees crowd and injure each other without succeeding in thinning themselves out properly. The ordinary bamboo and self-sown soft wood trees afford the proper shelter for the young teak, and I have never seen a case in Ataran where there was any lack of this growth.

C. M. HODGSON.

The Cluster-pine in South Africa.

Additional remarks to "Pine Wood at the Cape." See January Number p. 38.

Nestling at the base of the last high range of mountains in the South-West corner of South Africa lies the Genadendal Mission Station at an elevation of only 840 feet above the sea. East and West stretches the Zonder-End range of mountains, towering upwards to 5,000 feet elevation and capped with snow at intervals during the winter.

Genadendal is one of the oldest Mission Stations in South Africa. First founded in 1737, it was abandoned in consequence of the opposition of the Dutch Government in 1745. In 1792 it was re-founded in spite of the opposition of the neighbouring farmers who naturally did not look with favour on the establishment of a large coloured settlement in their midst. The Genadendal Mission folk are half-bred Hottentots and descendants of liberated slaves. They number to-day 3,000 souls and cultivate 1,200 garden lots on the rich alluvial (vley) ground of the locality.

The Moravian Church is known to many Indian readers, their simple earnest worship; their government by Bishops similar to the Anglican Church; their pushing the missionary idea even to the subordination of the duties of father, mother and those human instincts that sway most of us. The Moravian is chiefly a missionary church. They have missions in every part of the world; and the members of their missionary community far surpass in numbers the members of their little home community in Saxony with its branches in England and America. It will be remembered that the original Moravian Church in Austria was extirpated, but that some of the refugees gathered together in Saxony during the thirty years war and there founded the new Moravian Church that has flourished since. Their missionaries are well trained practical men. And surely none of them ever conceived a happier idea than that of planting the Cluster-pine in this remote corner of South Africa. The rainfall is about 35 inches, falling almost entirely in winter. The mean temperature

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60° Fah.; the climate generally that of Southern Europe, somewhat softened, *i. e.*, less brusque; summers being cooler and winters warmer. Cluster-pine is grown largely in the Cape Peninsula and neighbourhood, but usually in small private woods that are cut over young for firewood. When not clean-felled young their case is worse. The English prejudice in favour of open forest causes them to be excessively thinned. The result is timber that is short, badly shaped and full of knots. Timber also that is too quickly and unevenly grown: and so cuts up coarse and of an uneven texture, the centre rings, say, half an inch thick, while the outer rings may not exceed one-twentieth of an inch thick. Such timber has naturally a bad reputation for house-building. Too sappy and quick grown, it soon becomes worm-eaten, while its coarse and uneven texture causes it to warp and season badly.

The Cluster-pine of close, well-grown plantations is very different. It has long clean cylindrical stems, perfectly free from knots, and wood of a fine even texture that cuts up well and seasons satisfactorily. It is a sufficiently good wood, I have long maintained, for all ordinary house-building. Hence the value of the Genadendal demonstration.

My researches show that the difference in the timber acre-increment between close and open Cluster-pine forest is small but very differently distributed. In the close forest the acre-increment is spread in thin paper-like layers round a large number of stems: while in open forest the acre-increment is expended in thick layers round a few stems.

The poor quality of the Gascony Cluster-pine timber is doubtless largely due to its being grown in forest, purposely maintained too open, in order to increase the production of resin. That good Cluster-pine timber can be produced in Gascony we see in the Biarritz Club and a few other buildings that are constructed almost entirely of Cluster-pine.

D. E. HUTCHINS, F. R. MET. SOC.

Insects attacking teak in Southern India.

The teak plantations of Southern India, at Nelambur, in Cochin and in Travancore, are liable to the attacks of one or more species of caterpillars which from time to time swarm over the trees in immense numbers, and consume their leaves, thereby doing a very great deal of harm. With a view to ascertain the species of moth or butterfly whose caterpillar was so destructive, and to learn something of the life-history of the insect, one

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of our Rangers, Mr. V. K. Govinda Menon, who was trained at the Poona College of Science in the Forest Branch, was deputed last year to study the subject. His report, which has just been submitted, is, in spite of a certain quaintness of language, so instructive and interesting that I send a copy of it to you in case you should care to reproduce any portion of it in your Magazine :—

I have obtained the following additional information from the Ranger and others.

The attacks generally begin in April when the teak tree has put on its new foliage, and they last for about six weeks, when the caterpillars begin to disappear; but one or two may always be found on the teak if a search be made for them. The wet weather probably prevents the moth from increasing, and very little is seen of it until September or October, when, if the N.-E. Monsoon is light, its caterpillar may again attack the teak, the attack lasting about a month. Both very wet and very dry weather seem detrimental to the spread of the insect.

When the caterpillar begins to pupate it suspends itself by threads at either end to a leaf, not necessarily a dead leaf, spins a cocoon round itself, and folds the leaf over so that it is quite snug.

The caterpillar will eat the leaves of some jungle plants as well as teak, and it has been found in the jungle.

I am thankful to say that the caterpillar has an enemy in the shape of a fly which apparently lays its eggs in it, in which case the caterpillar remains inert and, after a time, some 20 or 30 minute flies appear.

The Ranger thinks that more than one species of caterpillar attack the teak, and he will be deputed to study the subject further when the caterpillars begin to appear. Certainly, the species that is the most common and has done the most damage hitherto is the black-headed grey caterpillar here described.

I forgot to say that the caterpillar, when it has once begun feeding, never leaves the tree, though it may shift from branch to branch when its food is exhausted in one place. It does not drop by a thread to the ground when it wishes to change its skin and therefore the system of tarring the stem of the trees, employed in Germany to prevent the caterpillars re-ascending them, is inapplicable.

T. F. BOURDILLON.

The life-history of the Insects which attacked the Teak Plantations at Perunthode.

In the months of September and October these plantations suffered severely from the injurious attack of a kind of beetle,

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The larvæ of the beetle were found feeding on the leaves of the young trees in sufficiently large quentities to quite defoliate them all. From observations made on these insects and by watching the different stages of their growth, it has been possible to make out the following life-history of the moths.

The eggs of the moths are very small in size, have a yellowish white colour and are semi-transparent. They are generally laid on the under surfaces of the tender leaves and the young larvæ hatch out from these and begin to feed, in their first stage, only on the epidermis of the leaves in consequence of their mandibles not being fully developed; but in the course of 2 or 3 days they attain the power of eating away the whole leaf. In this way they continue feeding for about a week, when a change of skin takes place. Just a few hours before the change the larva stops feeding and lies in a state of semi-stupor. When the time approaches it makes some jerks with the body, fastening the prolegs firmly on the ribs of a leaf or on some such other convenient object. Instantly, the new insect protrudes itself through the head, throwing off the old skin. Immediately after the change of skin the colour of the head is pale-yellow, and that of the body pale-grey; but within an hour or so the head turns quite jet black. It then goes on eating the leaves again for 3 or 4 days, when a second change of skin takes place similar to the first. Again the feeding is continued for another 3 or 4 days when it becomes comatose preparatory to its chrysalis stage. It remains in its comatose condition for a day, during which time it is engaged in constructing its cocoon. After the third change of skin which takes place inside the cocoon the insect appears in its chrysalis state in which form it lies for about 8 days, after which the moth emerges. As soon as the moth comes out of the chrysalis it excretes a drop or two of a muddy coloured liquid matter which within a few minutes solidifies and turns quite white.

The moth is about half an inch long and measures one inch in width with its outstretched wings. It has two pairs of wings; an inner and an outer pair. The inner one is coloured orange yellow and black, while the outer one is of a greyish colour. They are very smooth and dusty. It has 3 pairs of legs on the breast, the front pair being a little smaller than the two lower ones. The head is pointed, with two small projecting eyes, and two style-like hairs about a quarter of an inch in length, standing erect upon the top of the head.

The length of the larva after the first change of skin is about a quarter of an inch. After the second change of skin it measures a little over half an inch, and in its fully developed state it is an inch and a quarter long and a little less than a quarter of an inch in breadth. The body of the larva is com-

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posed of segments, 5 in the thoracic and 7 in the abdominal regions. It has six legs attached to the first three thoracic segments—two on each segment. The first four segments of the abdomen have each two small protrusions like glands on the underside—one on each side of the body of the larva. The last abdominal segment has two prolegs on its underside, which are used as legs when the larva walks. The body of the full grown larva is dark grey in colour. When the larva moves about, a pulsating motion can be distinctly observed, and when the insect is disturbed it emits a dark blue liquid from its mouth.

V. K. GOVINDA MENON,
Ranger.

II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

A Plea for Lighter Literature.

SIR,

Once more I have received your welcome journal and sigh as I hastily scan the Contents Bill.

On the cover you state that the "Forester" is a Magazine of Forestry, Agriculture, Shikar and Travel. We get plenty of Forestry but jolly little of anything else. I can dispense with Agriculture. A liberal and open-handed Government circulate a most estimable journal which keeps me up to date in that science and informs me how to use my spare cow-manure, how to improve the breed of village fowls, and discourses learnedly on such like subjects in case I should feel inclined to try weird experiments. So I don't ask for any agriculture: "jam satis." But let's have some Shikar and Travel; we are not all as painfully scientific as some of your correspondents evidently wish to be thought, so let's, Mr. Editor, have some more jam with our monthly pastry to satisfy the rest. Surely a Department such as ours can give a true shikar story or two, and moreover, written decently, not in the jocose semi-sporting public-house style, which wearies one in so reading the ordinary shikar papers wherein a Bear is never called anything but "Mr. Bruin," or a Tiger anything but "Stripes" and a Leopard anything but "Spots."

TAWKWE.

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We quite sympathize with 'Tawkwè' and only wish our supporters would supply us with some of the light reading he recommends. Perhaps 'Tawkwè' would not mind setting a good example to begin with: if our information is correct, he might give us many an interesting story.—HON. ED.

Mr. Fernandez's Forest Notes.

SIR,

It is now, alas! something approaching a quarter of a century, when, as an Assistant Conservator in Mysore, I opened the first number of the "Indian Forester" Since then I have been a steady reader and occasional contributor to its pages. Is there any Forest Periodical in the world that can point to a more useful and honorable career?

That recent development in the Appendix Series, is perhaps, the happiest point in its career, enabling one, as it does, to separate and bind apart the more solid and referential matter.

Recently, a long journey in a Cape cart has given me the opportunity of perusing Mr. Fernandez's three Appendices. And I write, with the jolts and jars of South African roads in my frame, but with the forests of France and Germany in my head, to ask if these really interesting and valuable Appendices are to be issued in book form. They go over ground that I traversed with Sir D. Brandis in 1890, and they revive the pleasant memories of that useful tour. Others are in a similar position to myself. These notes are useful and pleasant reading to us; while to those who will follow through the same forests, they will save the worry and trouble of note-taking.

My notes on many of these forests were printed and published by the Cape Government in 1892; but they are partial and incomplete compared with those that Mr. Fernandez has now been able to put before us.

If Mr. Fernandez's notes were reprinted some slight misprints and the complete translation of the German could be effected.

Would it not make the translation clearer if the following, and perhaps more usual nomenclature (out of India), were adopted:—

Inspector	in	charge	of	Inspection
Conservator	,,	,,	,,	Conservancy
Ranger	,,	,,	,,	Range
Forester	,,	,,	,,	Forest
Warden	,,	,,	,,	Ward
Guard	,,	,,	,,	Beat
Watcher	,,	,,	,,	,,

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I notice an error which does not appear to be a misprint. Ten inches of rainfall might be obtained from a misplaced rain-guage, but it is not the minimum rainfall of any portion of the forest country of central Germany. Surely 'Scots'-pine' is a provincialism.

D. E. HUTCHINS, F. R. MET. SOC.

An Imperial Forest Blazer.

SIR,

This subject was handed over to me for settlement by the late Editor, but for various reasons I have interfered little in the matter It may, however, be considered settled that there is going to be a blazer for the Imperial Forest Service, though the wearing of it will not be made a rule under the Forest Act. I propose to send round a circular shortly, inviting votes to settle the first question, *viz.*, whether the blazer is to be a coat of uniform colour or an arrangement in stripes of various colours. That point being settled by general consensus, I propose to save time and avoid futile discussion by leaving the final selection to a Committee of Conservators and others, as proposed by various correspondents. In the meantime I have written to England to obtain samples and information about as many shades of green as I can get. I have also exposed certain samples (probably now lost) to 6 months' sunlight, with a view to getting shades that will wear well. This obtaining information is slow work. Every firm would like to supply the blazer, but few can or will give any useful help towards a selection. I quite agree with "Nil Desperandum" that there is a want of *esprit de corps* in the Department; no Department has more need of it, and a common blazer, though a trifle, is a step on the way.

F. GLEADOW.

AN IMPERIAL FOREST BLAZER.

SIR,

I am glad to see that in the February Number of the Forester that often-interred forest blazer corpse has been once again resuscitated. Nil Desperandum should be accorded the thanks of those interested in the question for his hardihood.

Whilst fully agreeing with Nil Desperandum that the question should be one easy to settle, I am unable to agree with

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several of the statements he makes in his letter. He says, on the subject of choosing the colours, 'each individual wishes to 'give his opinion and nothing but confusion results.' This is hardly fair on the few—a very small number—who, interesting themselves in the matter, have taken the trouble to make proposals, with a view to settling the colour question in the pages of the Forester. Nil Desperandum surely knows that there is nothing like controversy for keeping a debateable question *sur le tapis*. It would have been far better had many more suggestions and proposals been put forward. It is the stagnation and evident want of interest on the part of officers that is preventing the matter reaching a definite settlement.

In the August 1896 Number of the Forester I remember I made proposals similar to those now advocated by Nil Desperandum, and I agree with him that by this means the colours could be soon decided on.

Another remark Nil Desperandum makes is 'There is no reason why Cooper's Hill men should stand out against a blazer.' I am unaware on what authority he makes so general an accusation. As far as my enquiries have led me in the matter I have found that it is not the junior men in the department, but the more senior ones, who are most apathetic on the question of forest colours, and perhaps this is not surprising. The juniors have still all their service in front of them. That a Cooper's Hill man will always wear his College colours and be proud of them—*cela va sans dire*. But I should be sorry to think that the Cooper's Hill men were the 'wet blanket' in the colour question; the sweeping accusation against them all is certainly not true.

The colours, once decided upon, will in all probability be worn fast enough by all, especially as, just at present, the C.H. colours seem to be rather kaleidoscopic, the new blood apparently being undecided in their minds as to the precise shade and stripe of purple and gold which will best suit their, as yet, pink and white complexions.

The writer believes that this talk of want of *esprit de corps* is only the proverbial storm in a teacup, and far from standing out against them, hopes to see forest colours soon to the front, and he *is*

A COOPER'S HILL MAN.

March 12th 1898.

A New Edition of the Code.

SIR,

May I use your pages to suggest to those in high places that a new edition of the Forest Department Code is much

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required. The present (fourth) edition bristles with correction-slips to such an extent that a mistake as to the orders now in force may readily be made. Suspecting that my personal copy was short of its proper complement of corrections by some dozens of slips, I procured a complete supply from Calcutta. The number of slips issued to date for the Code proper is, I find, about 120, or more than one for each page of letterpress; but the number of alterations required by the slips is much higher. First we were given a new edition of the Code without its Appendices: latterly the reverse has occurred. The importance of embodying correction slips in new editions is obvious. When a fifth edition of the Code is under preparation a comprehensive alphabetical index should be added. I feel sure that Forest Officers generally, and even more so Officials, who need only occasionally refer to the Code, would welcome a really good index.

J.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Forest Fires and their effects on the Reproduction of Teak.

It is desirable to remark, in the first place, that evergreen, tidal, and riparian forests need not be considered at all, as they are not subject to fires; that it is necessary to treat the question of fire-protection as regards its effects upon the soil itself, upon the reproduction and upon the existing growing stock; and that for the general discussion of the subject it is advisable to separate the deciduous forests into the three following classes:—

(*a*) Those in which the valuable species occur with a dense under-growth of evergreen, periodically and gregariously flowering bamboos, which more or less prevent natural reproduction of the tree-growth, except when the bamboos seed.

(*b*) Those in which the bamboo undergrowth possesses a lighter foliage and flowers sporadically as well as gregariously, and in which the reproduction of treegrowth can always take place, though more particularly at the time when the cover has been opened up by the general, but also sporadic, flowering of the bamboo.

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(*c*) Those with an undergrowth of shrubs, herbaceous plants. and grasses only, and in which the valuable species are generally found as mixed forests, though occasionally, and more particularly in the case of cutch, growing in a pure state.

There is a general consensus of opinion that fire-protection does not actually result in the production of regular humus in any of the above classes of forests, but that nevertheless the condition of the soil is greatly benefited by protection and, on the other hand, its productive power is injuriously affected by constantly recurring fires. Where fire is common, the fallen leaves and other decaying vegetable matters are transformed into a layer of ashes which is blown away by the wind and washed away by the rains, so that the whole benefit to the soil is lost; and this is not all, for the torrential rain of the south-west monsoon also removes the top layer and most nutritive portion of the soil itself, so that in unprotected forests it is found that the small stones do not rest on the general level of the ground, but are supported by little pinnacles of earth, left when the surrounding exposed soil was washed away, There can, however, be little or no doubt that in fire-protected forests, the manuring principles of the decaying vegetable substances are returned to the soil, not in the usual form of humus, but more indirectly through the fæces and decomposing bodies of the myriads of earth-worms, ants, beetles, and other insects which consume such forest debris as fallen stems, dead wood, and leaves, and after extracting their requisite nourishment from it, emit the fæces, not in the form of more or less altered organic matter, but as a very fine, pure and fertile loam. It is true that this product also is liable to be washed away by the rain, but where fire-protection is successful the covering of dead leaves—and this is more particularly the case in forests of class (*a*)—lasts long enough to prevent the washing away of the surface soil before the live cover has re-established itself. The fact that fire-protection greatly benefits the soil is then beyond question.

In forests of class (*a*), protection from fire, or the occurrence of fire, can have no direct influence on the actual reproduction of trees, except during, and for some years after the flowering of the bamboos. It is possible then that a fire, occurring just when the culms begin to dry and before the bamboo seed has germinated, might be beneficial to the reproduction, but the cost to the growing-stock would be practically incalculable, and it is far from certain whether the fire, which would of necessity be a fierce one, might not very injuriously affect the seeding power of the mature trees during the critical period when reproduction can take place.

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It is a fact that in forests of class (*b*), teak is better represented in areas subjected to fire than in protected forests, and that this is due to teak being more capable of withstanding, and to a certain extent of outgrowing, the effects of fire than any other tree. Nevertheless the effect of fires in forests of this class is most pernicious: for although we may obtain fewer teak seedlings in a fire-protected area, we know that these are healthier, grow faster and will yield better timber. We know also that by fire-protection we avoid constant injury to, and interference with, the development of the growing-stock while we prevent the steady deterioration of the soil.

Forests of class (*c*) are mainly important as cutch-producing areas and, as regards teak, are of no very great extent and are mainly confined to Upper Burma. The teak in them is chiefly produced in family groups, the formation of which can be encouraged and accomplished without the use of fires. The benefit conferred upon cutch-reproduction, by no other means than fire-protection, is a matter of common knowledge, and no further arguments are needed to prove the advisability of protection in forests of this character.

The majority of the officers consulted are then in favour of fire-protection, and the question may be summed up by saying that while protection in teak forests increases the fertility of the soil, and at any rate tends to increase the luxuriance and rate of growth of all classes of the growing-stock, and ensures an eventual yield of good and sound material, the constant occurrence of fire can only result in the gradual deterioration both of the soil and the growing-stock. Finally, it is possible to ensure the advantage gained in certain forests by the occurrence of fires, that is to say, the better representation of teak, by means of improvement fellings, but it is impossible to safeguard them from the damage caused by fires by any means other than fire-protection. (Review of Forest Administration in India in 1895-96, by B. Ribbentrop, C. I. E., Inspector-General of Forests).

Report of the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, for 1896-97.

RESOLUTION OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

During the twelve months ending the 30th June 1897, the Directorship of the School was held by Mr. J. S. Gamble, M. A., from 1st to 31st July 1896, and by Mr. J. W. Oliver from the 1st August until the close of the year. The post of Deputy Director was held by Mr. F. Gleadow throughout the year. Mr,

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B. B. Osmaston officiated as Instructor until his departure on privilege leave, while Mr. A. F. Gradon resumed charge of his duties as Instructor on his return from furlough on the 27th November 1896. Instructor Mr. C. G. Rogers was granted two years' furlough with effect from the 5th February 1897, and Mr. B. B. Osmaston was, on return from privilege leave, posted to the School staff in his place. Babu Upendra Nath Kanjilal continued to hold the post of Vernacular Instructor.

The School staff was also assisted by the Director of the Botanical Department, Northern India, the Assistant Agricultural Chemist, the Deputy Superintendent of the Indian Museum, and the officers of the School Circle.

2. The number of students attending the School during the past four years is given below—

	Paid.	Private.	Total.
1893-94	73	33	106
1894-95	72	34	106
1895-96	54	29	83
1896-97	47	28	75

The number of students attending has thus again decreased during the year under review. Of the 75 students who attended during the year, 13 were already in Government service, 23 were stipendiary students, 28 attended at their own expense, and 11 were deputed by various Native States.

The very considerable increase in students of this last class is viewed with satisfaction, as tending to prove that the Rulers of Native States are gradually recognising the benefits that must arise from the appointment of properly trained men of the administration of their forest estates.

3. The table appended to paragraph 13 of the Report is interesting, as it shows how completely the number of students entering the School has in past years depended on the number of stipends granted by Government. It is, however, believed that when the prospects open to good men, under the recently sanctioned reorganization of the Provincial Service, come to be more generally known, a greater number of natives by race will be found willing to enter the School at their own expense. The decrease in the proportion of students of European extraction is not to be regretted; for though the pay of the Provincial Service ranges from Rs. 200 to Rs. 600 per mensem, the years which must necessarily be spent in the Ranger class, on a pay of from Rs. 50 to 150 per mensem, before the Provincial Service can be entered, render the service unsuitable for Europeans.

4. There were 35 students in the Senior Upper and Lower classes. Of these one obtained Honours, 23 the ordinary certificate by the Higher standard, 8 the Lower standard certificate, one, a lower class student, failed, one student died during the course, and one left the School before the examinations. These

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results are compared in the following table with those of the examinations during the previous five years :—

YEAR.	Number of students attending final examination.			RESULTS OF THE FINAL EXAMINATION.								
				HONOURS.			ORDINARY CERTIFICATE.			FAILED.		
	Private.	Paid.	Total.	Private.	Paid.	Total.	Private.	Paid.	Total.	Private.	Paid.	Total.
				Upper Class.								
1892	3	22	25	...	..	...	2	18	20	1	4	5
1893	6	35	41	...	...	...	4	30	34	2	5	7
1894	13	35	48	...	3	3	12	24	36	1	8	9
1895	12	30	42	...	...	...	8	26	34	4	4	8
1896	9	28	37	...	..	...	7	22	29	2	6	8
1897	9	15	24	..	1	1	9	14	23	...	...	...
TOTAL ...	52	165	217	...	4	4	42	134	176	10	27	37
				Lower Class.								
1892	..	6	6	...	...	...	...	6	6*	...	...	...
1893	2	2	4	...	...	..	2	2	4	...	...	...
1894	3	8	11	...	...	...	3	8	11*	...	...	...
1895	5	3	8	...	...	...	5	3	8	...	...	...
1896	6	2	8	...	...	...	3	2	5	3	...	3
1897	4	5	9	...	...	...	3	5	8	1	...	1
TOTAL ...	20	26	46	...	...	...	16	26	42	4	...	4
GRAND TOTAL...	72	191	263	...	4	4	58	160	218	14	27	41

* FOOTNOTE.—These figures do not agree with those given in Appendix No. II to the Report, as the latter include failed upper class students who were granted lower class certificates.

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The results of the year under review compare vere favourably with those of previous years, both as regards the percentage of failures and the average marks obtained. It is observed from the table given above that the percentage of failures among private students during the last six years is considerably higher than in the case of men sent to the School at Government expense, which appears to show that the stipendiary students are not less diligent in the prosecution of their studies than the men who enter the School at their own expense, and that due care has been taken in their selection.

5.—The entrance examination was held this year in January, instead of in March as in previous years. It is observed that 47 men presented themselves, of whom 26 qualified and 18 finally elected to join the School. One man was admitted who had passed the entrance examination in 1895, and two others under Rule 12 (vii); five men also joined the Lower class, thus bringing the total number who entered the School up to 26. This is a very considerable decrease on the average of 46 that joined during the five years 1892-1896 and the falling-off, though in all probability due to the small number of Government stipends offered, is much to be regretted.

6.—The question of the desirability, or otherwise, of making further rules for regulating the grant of stipends to students, which was referred to in paragraph 6 of the Government of India Review of the School Report for 1895—96, was fully discussed at the last meeting of the Board of Control in March 1897. It was resolved that the matter was gradually righting itself, that no present change in the rules was required, and that the question must be left to the discretion of Local Governments. This view of the case has since been accepted by the Government of India.

7.—It is observed that the physical capabilities of the students were satisfactory, but that their previous education, more especially as regards a knowledge of English on the part of the Native students, was insufficient to enable them to obtain the full benefit of the prescribed course of lectures. Both these questions were considered by the Board of Control, and upon their recommendation it has been suggested by the Governmont of India to the various Local Governments and Administrations that the standard of English at the entrance examination of the School should be raised, and that in future, candidates should, after passing the entrance examination, undergo a six months' course of practical training in the forests. It is hoped that orders on these two important questions will shortly be issued.

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IV.-REVIEWS.

Forest Administration in the Punjab, Berar and Coorg during 1896-97.

In the *Punjab* the area of forest at the end of the year was as follows :—

	Departmental.	Military.	Civil.	Total.	
Reserved Forest	1,681	122	2	1,805	Sq. M. 7,071
Protected ,,	2,877	,,	131	3,008	
Unclassed ,,	2,258	,,	,,	2,258	

Out of this area 696 sq. miles are under working plans, while plans for another 2,103 sq. miles are under preparation, chiefly by Divisional Officers.

The year is said to have been very favourable for fire-protection, only 13,559 acres having been burnt, which is 0·3 per cent. of the area under the Department. The good result in Hazara Division has been ascribed to a successful experiment in letting cattle in, free of payment, to trample down or graze the grass in areas which were densely covered with it.

Many forests had to be thrown open to grazing on account of the famine, but the offer of opening Changa Manga to cattle in order that they might feed on mulberry leaves was a failure, as the villagers refused to leave their homes.

In the remarks on *Natural Reproduction*, the following regarding that of the deodar and pines in Hazara is the most interesting thing :—

"Deodar seed was again scanty, as was also that of *Pinus longifolia*, but that of *Pinus excelsa* was fairly profuse. There 'is nothing further to add regarding reproduction of *Pinus* '*excelsa*. It is hoped that reproduction of *Pinus longifolia* will 'have improved owing to the large areas which escaped fire. 'It is believed that five years' immunity from fire would ensure 'the re-stocking of blank areas provided grass was not too 'dense. The cause of fires is put down to the presence of the 'grass and not to the needles. More extensive grazing over 'the forests in which there is little or no reproduction of 'conifers would probably reduce the grass and thus diminish fires, 'bringing about reproduction."

Mr. Minniken's remarks are all very well, but how is the reproduction to be managed, when, as happens in certain forests that we know, the villagers refuse the grazing without the permission to burn.

In regard to *Artificial Reproduction* the note is more or less 'failure' everywhere except in the case of the *Robinia*

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plantations about Simla, which appear to be a wonderful success. In our private opinion, much of the failure of plantation work in the Indian hills, and perhaps also to some extent in the plains, is due to the idea that the rainy season is the only time for planting. In the rainy season, the deodar or blue pine or whatnot is in the full vigour of its growth in a nursery; you suddenly startle it by tearing it out of the ground, carrying it perhaps miles with its roots more a less exposed to a hot sun and then plant it in a pit which fills up with water on the arrival of the next deluge. It is not to be wondered at that it turns yellow and sickly and then succumbs. Might it not be better to try the operation in the season, usually before or after the winter, when the plant is in a more or less dormant condition, and capable of standing the shock and preparing itself to start growing when the rain and the warmth combined come to help it?

We are glad to see that the Conservator has found the 'clearing' of clumps of bamboo in Kangra a success. We hope he will follow the clearing by a yearly cutting of mature culms and disregard the very natural phenomenon that after clearing, culms which have grown up in a thick mass are easily blown down. What does it matter when they can be cut out the following year which will bring out new culms of a stronger physique!

Timber extraction work records little of especial interest, though we are glad to see a new line has been taken by Mr. Mayes in utilizing the produce of the Kalesar forests to supply Railway keys to the North-Western Railway and to use sleeper rafts to convey fuel to depôt. We extract the following:—

"Mr. Mayes reports that a new market has been found for 'part of the produce of the Kalesar forest by supplying Rail-'way keys to the North-Western Railway. In this way a large 'number of pieces which will not yield any other classes of 'timber and are too short and thick to be extracted as fuel, 'can be utilised. An experimental order for 5,000 keys was 'obtained from the North-Western Railway at the rate of 'Rs. 4-1-0 per hundred, delivered at Jagádhri station. The 'work was done by a contractor who made the keys and de-'livered them at the Railway for Rs. 2-12-0 per hundred, thus 'leaving the department a profit of Re. 1-5-0 per hundred and 'about 5 annas per cubic foot. It is hoped to extend this 'branch of utilization, and a further order has been obtained 'from the Railway for 35,000 keys which will be executed 'during 1897-98. The greater part of the fuel yield was again 'sold to the North-Western Railway at the same rate as last 'year, *viz.*, Rs. 85 per 1,000 cubic feet. The felling, cutting-'up and stacking in the forest were carried out departmentally, 'and the remainder of the work was done through three con-

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'tractors; one for carrying the wood to the river bank and 'stacking it there, the second for rafting down to the Railway, 'and the third for cutting the wood into short billets and 'stacking it alongside the Railway. The sleepers for rafting 'purpose were obtained from the Deputy Conservator of 'Forests, Jaunsar Division, North-Western Provinces, and from 'native traders."

The amount of timber extracted by Government Agency was 826,287 c. ft., while 641,605 c. ft. were removed by purchasers and 804,806 c. ft., given away to right-holders.

The rates obtained for different classes of timber are rather interesting. They show that in the Jhelum Division deodar logs sold at an average of 10 annas 11 pies per c. ft., while pine fetched 5 annas 9 pies; while in the Chenab Division deodar produced 14 annas 11 pies and pine 7 annas 8 pies per c ft. Roughly, then, the deodar is a little less than twice the value of pine. It is the same very nearly for other Divisions; for instance, in Chamba, deodar brought 12·18 annas per c. ft., and pine 4·31; in Kangra, deodar gave nearly Re. 1 per c. ft., while pine sold at 7 annas; while in Barhahr deodar was sold at 9·58 annas and 8·20 annas for the Doraha and Phillour depôts respectively, pine bringing in 3·73 annas and 2·89 annas. Taking the average rates of the whole, the proportion of value of deodar to pine wood was a little better than 2 to 1, which is interesting. As the growth of a pine tree is considerably faster than that of a deodar, the question is certainly arguable whether we are right in despising it as much as we sometimes do.

The financial results of the Punjab were—

		Rs.
Revenue	...	10,66,458
Expenditure	...	7,45,624
Surplus	...	3,20,834

In the *Berar* Report we see that the area of reserved forest was 4,179 square miles, being 23·6 per cent. of the area of the Province. Throughout the Report come numerous indications that the year was one of famine, and these indications show what great value in such a season a well-managed State forest property can be. Much work was provided for famine labour, forests were thrown open, and wonderful to state, with very little result in the way of fire in them, and the services of the officers of the Department are acknowledged. In regard to the question of the *Improvement of forest growth*, Mr. Bagshawe says:

"Though a year of drought must be detrimental to forest 'growth, and progress during the past year has been retarded,

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'the exceptional feature of the South Berar forests being nearly 'cleared of grass has shown us that natural reproduction of teak, '&c., has made far more advance than we hoped, or that toil-'some walks through heavy grass led us to expect.

'The wonderful improvement in the surface-soil and the 'very general distribution of seedlings and saplings hitherto 'hidden by the grass were noticed by all interested in the forests; 'and if conversion to a faith in protection from fire and cattle 'is ever needed now-a-days, a visit to the forests on the Ajunta 'ghâts and a comparison of what we call 'A' and 'C' area 'would convince the most sceptical."

On the subject of grazing for famine cattle the Conservator remarks that much grass was rendered unavailable in consequence of the absence of water near at hand,and that many forests with poor grazing but a fair supply of water kept considerable herds of cattle alive.

The financial results of the year were :—

	Rs.	
Revenue ...	5,17,819	We take the figures of the financial year as these seem to be the ones usually quoted by the Government.
Expenditure ...	2,41,872	
Surplus ...	2,75,947	

The *Coorg* Report shews very little of special interest which can here be recorded. The financial results were not good, the revenue having been Rs. 84,014, and the expenditure 77,203, giving a surplus of Rs. 6,811, the consequence chiefly of a falling-off in sandal-wood sales.

On the difficult subject of assisting the reproduction of sandal, the Chief Commissioner says :—

"Personally I am of opinion that the real way to reproduce 'this valuable timber is to dibble in seed, in every hedge, and 'in every bit of fairly open Government waste, in fact, every-'where, except in cultivation, and to leave the rest to nature."

And he is no doubt right. Our own experience is that sandal almost always wants the help of bushes or small trees or some such shelter—the birds are fond of the berries but reject the stones which drop from their perches on the branches of trees to the ground, where they germinate protected by bushes. In time, the tree comes up through the bushes and eventually overgrows them. It would seem therefore that scattering seed sparsely in the middle of bushes is a better and more likely plan of procedure than trying to grow the tree in nurseries and transplant it.

We are interested to see that Mr. Lowrie has tried to get a market for the kino of *Pterocarpus Marsupium* which he says fetches a price of £25 per cwt. in England. But will the extract from the bark give kino or not rather a tannin extract of a different chemical character?

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Forest Administration Report of Hyderabad for the Year 1895-96.

The Forest Report of the Dominions of His Highness the Nizam refers to the period of the Fasli year 1305, corresponding to the period October 7th 1895 to October 6th 1896 of our era. So far as we can remember, this is the first printed report which the State has issued since forest conservancy began, and we are much disappointed at the signs which appear in the review by the State Board of Revenue that Forest Conservancy is not viewed with as much interest by the State authorities in Hyderabad as it is in some other Native States we could mention. From our knowledge of the Eastern boundaries of the State, at any rate, there must be a considerable area of fine and valuable forest which should be taken care of and properly managed—and we hope that future reports will show at least some larger meed of sympathy with the struggles of a new Department than is evidenced in the Board's Review, and the remarks in it by their second member. The introduction of forest conservancy in the Provinces of British India followed by similar work in the chief Native States has naturally at first met with much opposition, an opposition which by degrees has diminished, as it may be hoped it will in Hyderabad, with the perseverance of the officers appointed. But it does seem hard that a Government or a State should appoint officers to carry out the management of a portion of its estates and then throw obstacles in their way and treat them as if they were speculators trying to make personal capital out of their work, instead of zealous and hardworking men trying to do their best for their employers.

The Forest Department in Hyderabad is at present manned by a staff which consists of—

(1) A Conservator, Mr. W. F. Biscoe, Rs. 1,000.
(2) Four Assistant Conservators in charge of Divisions (Warangal, Bedee, Gulbargah and Aurangabad)—pay Rs. 200 to Rs. 575.
(3) Three Sub-Assistant Conservators—pay Rs. 100.
(4) Personal Assistant to Conservator—pay Rs. 250.
(5) 15 Forest Rangers, pay Rs. 35 to Rs. 80.
(6) 30 Foresters—pay Rs. 15 to Rs. 25.
(7) 317 Forest guards—Rs. 7 to 8.
(8) 81 clerks and 60 peons on various rates of pay.

The staff seems to us good and quite sufficient, if capable, if indeed it is not almost larger than necessary for a circle of only four Divisions. We are glad to see that of the Dehra Dún trained men, Assistant Conservator Mr. E. A. Partridge and Sub-

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Assistant Conservators Krishnaji Javadekar, Gopal Krishna, and R. C. Farrell, have all been very well reported on for good work.

The area of reserved forest at the end of the year amounted to 3,752 square miles, most of which, as might be expected, was in the Warangal District. Proposals for a further area of 1,225 square miles are before the Board, and a further area of 731 square miles has been selected. On the subject of the area which the Department should control the Board say :

"In the opinion of the Board of Revenue, the policy should 'be to take up all necessary reserves, and then to confine the 'operations of the Forest Department to these areas alone, leaving 'the open forest under the Revenue officers. It is impossible in 'the present state of the revenues to provide sufficient expen-'diture for the adequate supervision by the Forest Department 'of both the open and the reserved forests. The whole energy 'of the Department should therefore be concentrated on the 'reserves. It would be better that the Forest Department should 'not be represented at all in the open forests, and that these be 'left to the Revenue Department, which works through the 'patels of villages, rather than, 'the Forest Department be 'represented in a taluka where there is a considerable area of 'forest by a *single* chowkidar.' The single chowkidar could be 'much more usefully employed in one of the reserves, where, 'although there has been some increase of establishment, the 'number of subordinates is still said to be too limited."

It is difficult for us, without more specific knowledge of the circumstances than we possess, to give an opinion on this very difficult question ; but we venture to point out that although *prima facie* the Board's views would seem to be correct policy, and to be what the Department itself would like, there is another side to the question and that is the very great probability that before many years are out the 'open forest' will cease to exist, and there will then arise an outcry calling for the excision of parts of the reserved area, and by degrees a whittling down of that area until little if anything remains. We are more inclined for our part to think that reservation of all forest lands will be the best policy, and that the management of the lands should be so adapted as to meet first of all the wants of the people in such a way as to maintain the whole area in as good and as increasingly improving a condition as possible, consistent with the supply of those wants. The better forests can always be managed in a stricter way for the supply of higher class material, but the whole should be maintained instead of keeping up merely the better parts and allowing the rest to gradually disappear. At present, in the open forest, the control of the Department is confined to the protection of a few reserved trees, and the rest of the trees and all minor products are looked after by the Revenue Department. No wonder the Conservator says : "Illicit felling, fire,

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'excessive grazing, the axe of the herdsman and the shepherd 'and all the enemies to which a forest can be subjected combine 'to denude and destroy the open forests."

It is a little difficult to gather from the report before us, the character of the forests and the species of tree which compose them. Teak is the principal tree, though even in the best areas, the individuals are said to be hollow and unsound. With teak come the usual other species which constitute the class of forest known as 'dry deciduous' with such kinds as *Terminalias*, *Anogeissus*, *Lagerströmia* and others, with satinwood, ebony, *Hardwickia*, *Acacias*, *Pterocarpus*, *Adina*, *Soymida* and some sandal in places.

We are not aware, and the report does not tell us, what is the nature of the Forest Law in force, but so far as we can make out, it is very nearly the same as in British India. The number of cases which came before the courts was 2,440, which seems large, but naturally, at first, it takes some time to get the new laws respected. There were also 2,067 cases in which double tax (corresponding to our 'compounding') was levied. The practice which gives most trouble appears to be 'lopping' regarding which the Conservator says :

"Regarding (*a*) herdsmen and shepherds felling and mutila- 'ting trees in order that their animals may eat the leaves, it is 'an unfortunate thing that the foliage of all our most valuable 'species, Bijasal, Satin, Sheeshum, Yeppa, Teak, etc., is greedily 'eaten by cattle or goats ; the damage done is still most deplorable 'in open forests, but has much decreased in certain reserves. Gov- 'ernment has recognised that the existence of large flocks of 'browsers in the reserves is not compatible with the growth of 'forests ; by prohibiting goats from outside the reserve from 'entering it, and giving Forest Officers powers to fine dhungars 'caught felling and lopping trees and thus assisted by Govern- 'ment, no doubt in time the Forest Officers will be able to 'reduce the damage done to a minimum. Unfortunately, immense 'numbers of goats belong to dhungars are resident in the reserves. 'In one village, for instance, at Amerabad, there are over 8,000 'of those animals, the dhungar's only expense in rearing and fatten- 'ing his goats for sale being the grazing fee of one anna. Dhungars 'complain very much at not being allowed to destroy the trees as 'heretofore, but the interests of the ryots and general public must 'be consulted, and if sufficient fodder for goats cannot be provided 'without denuding waste areas of forest, it only shows that the 'number of goats is quite out of proportion to the capabilities of the 'forests to provide them with fodder. It is due principally to 'goats that all forest growth has disappeared in Nalgundah and 'other zillahs to the great inconvenience of the inhabitants."

Fire-protection has apparently hardly begun yet, and its introduction seems to be difficult to carry out. We hope the Con-

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servator will persevere, but if we are not mistaken it is not so much by the application of penalties and by hard treatment that it will eventually succeed, but by trying to make the people understand its value, and by constant watchfulness, good protection-belts and the application of the rule that it is better to prevent people setting fire than to punish them for doing it. We are glad to see that the Board "hope that this important part of the forest conservancy will gradually be dealt with in an effective manner."

The financial results of the year were—

Receipts	...	... Rs. 2,00,679
Expenditure	...	... „ 1,25,079
Surplus	...	... „ 75,600

The Board express themselves as owing the best thanks of Government to the Conservator for his able management and good report.

Forest Administration Report of Kashmir for 1896-97.

It is with considerable pleasure that we again refer to the excellent work that is being done by Mr. McDonell in Kashmir and his clear and interesting report. As has been the case with the Department in British India, Mr. McDonell has had to prove his capacity for swimming before he could be allowed to enter the water; that is, he has been obliged to show a large surplus revenue before he could get the establishment he wants. The following extract will explain our meaning, and we hope that the State will now recognize his services and allow him the increase in staff which he requires and which he has fully explained to be so necessary, if proper work is to be done, waste checked and working plans introduced. "The gross revenue of the year under 'review (Sambat 1953) came to Rs. 10,43,585. The expenditure 'was Rs. 3,83,271, leaving a surplus or net profit for the year's 'operations of Rs. 6,60,314, which is Rs. 2,74,585 in excess of the 'sonctioned budget estimate, and Rs. 2,81,186 in excess of the 'average surplus obtained during the five preceding years. In-, cluding the present year, that is taking the past six years, the , average surplus, Rs. 4,25,992, is Rs. 2,85,051 in excess of the , average profit realised annually for 11 years before the present 'Conservator took charge of the State forests—or taken in totals 'the Department has made for the State in six years the sum of 'Rs. 25,55,956 surplus, against a corresponding surplus of 15½ 'lakhs of rupees in the abovementioned 11 years."

The financial success of the year is chiefly attributed by the Conservator to good fortune in getting sleepers down the rivers, an absence of floods and good prices.

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The area of reserved forest now stands at 1,824 square miles, of which about one-fourth is deodar forest.

Demarcation has always been a difficult matter in Kashmir, but it is now going on better, especially in some Divisions, but there are difficulties, such as we are also, in the British Himalaya, more or less acquainted with, as will be seen from the following extract :—

"Fair progress was made in demarcation, in fact it may be 'said to be approaching completion in Kamráj, for most of the is-'solated forests have been finished, and also the lower boundaries of 'those that stretch far up the mountain sides. In time it is in-'tended to mark off the portions containing deodar, as the higher 'parts consisting mostly of *Abies Webbiana* are, by reason of 'position, of little commercial value, and merely require general 'supervision. This, however, will take time, as the work is of a 'very arduous description, far from villages and often there is an 'entire absence of water. The opposition to demarcation by vil-'lagers has almost entirely ceased, for they see that although they 'may not do any damage or break up forest land for cultivation, 'still they get all the forest produce that they require for their own 'use. All that happens now is that when a high official of another 'Department goes on tour the malcontents appear before him in 'large numbers, assume a woe-be-gone appearance, and complain 'that the forests have been demarcated and they are afraid that 'their grazing will be stopped ; or, as happened in the Kalárus 'Valley, they say they are afraid that reserved forests may be 'created as has been done in Khagar, a procedure which is ex-'tremely likely to be carried out notwithstanding that these 'foreign Khagáni Gujars will try their best to prevent it. The 'only pity is that these high officials should take any notice of 'these complaints, giving the Conservator the trouble of giving 'the inevitable reply."

The boundary marks used, consist of wooden posts set in a mound of stones or earth, and cost about 1½ as. each; line-cutting costing about Rs. 3 per mile.

Last year we remarked that not much work seemed to be in progress towards the collection of data for Working Plans. This year, however, enumeration surveys have gone on in Kishtwár, over 488½ acres, which were shewn to have 5,106 mature first class deodar, of which 3,008 sound, *i.e.*, nearly 62 trees per acre, which seems good. In Mozufferabad a rough working plan was made with a complete stock in the Dangalli forest of Chil pine, (*Pinus longifolia*). In Bhimbar, also, some surveys were made in Chil forest. On the subject of *Establishments* to which we have already shortly referred, the Conservator says :

"No changes were made in the forest charges and they must 'remain as they are for the present, until more officers are avail-'able, but they are almost all too large as they stand, the conse-

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quence is that the officer in charge is unable to inspect them 'sufficiently, and thus too much power is left in the hands of 'Foresters and Guards. Of the latter many are the old class of 'the old *régime* who fatten on the people, and it is extremely 'difficult to prove anything against them. What the Department 'wants is some European Forest Officers for the important out-'of-the-way Divisions, for they carry weight with the people 'and officials, which many of the native officers do not. One 'State student, Sher Singh, completed his course at the Imperial 'Forest School at the close of the year and received a Ranger's 'certificate; he will doubtless be of use in the Department as soon 'as practical experience allows of his scientific knowledge being 'applied to work."

Fire-protection is reported as fairly successful, but still 100 fires occurred, burning 9,512 acres, which is only about $\frac{1}{3}$ of the area burnt in the previous year. Most of the fires are set down to deliberate incendiarism.

There was very little deodar seed in 1896, but it is reported that of the seedlings which came up after the heavy seeding year of 1894 have done very well on the whole, when the excessive heat and dryness of 1896 are taken into consideration. Both chil and blue pine (*Pinus excelsa*) are reported to be coming up well on blanks.

The total outturn of the forests for the year under review was 10,353,053 cubic feet, which includes 3,788,030 cubic feet removed by State agency; 1,101,703 cubic feet removed by purchasers and 5,463,320 cubic feet given in free grant. Much of the Government timber was brought out as sleepers, and of these 202,321 broad guage sleepers were sold chiefly to the North-Western Railway, and fetched Rs. 5,94,280 or Rs. 2-14-11 per sleeper. Of timber in log, a large quantity was also brought out, the average rate of sale being about 6 as. per cubic foot.

The following account of the sawing works on the upper Chenab will be read with interest:

"Sleeper work is carried out here under peculiar difficulties. 'The country is sparsely inhabited, so that comparatively few 'sawyers are available, and such as exist naturally prefer to 'work only in their spare time and close to their homes, so that 'they may look after their fields easily. As the Department is 'not working under contract and does not desire to cut more 'than a moderate number of sleepers till the establishment is 'strengthened and Working Plans can be made, it is possible to 'meet the wishes of the workmen, but it entails work being 'scattered over the district in several different localities, which, 'of course, causes difficulties in the way of supervision. During 'the year, 1,627 deodar trees were felled, which produced '67,750 sleepers, or 41 sleepers per tree. Out of this total, 'only 482 were green trees, which gave 49 sleepers per tree,

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'the remainder were dead, fallen, injured or top-sore trees, 'but the stock of the latter kinds is almost at an end in the Udil 'chakla, so that if felling is to be restricted to such trees it will 'be necessary to move to other localities. As yet the local 'labour cannot be said to be skilled, for the number of rejections 'for bad sawing is still very great. It would be easy by raising 'the rates to attract sawyers from the Punjab, but as the 'Department wishes to help the local people, and desires that 'the money paid for work should remain in the country, 'it prefers to teach the local men how to do the work properly. 'Of course there is a loss on sale from bad work but this is 'counterbalanced by having a friendly population. Logs are 'cut to sleeper lengths with the saw, but many cases occurred 'where the men being new to the work and the use of the long 'saw, had not cut the log straight through the diameter, this 'resulted in some of the sleepers being short of the proper 'dimension as regards length, but such bad work will cease in 'time. The average cost of sawing alone, including rejected 'sleepers, was 4 annas each, the delivery and launching came 'to 1½ anna, to which has to be added 9 pies for working down 'the tributary to Chenab river. This year a few Sikh sawyers 'were imported and turned out some 5,000 sleepers of a much 'higher class than those sawn by local labour, consequently 5 'annas each were paid; but it is not the intention to get in any 'large number of these men, who naturally take their earnings 'back to their homes. The presence of a few pairs of Sikh 'sawyers should, however, have a good effect on the work, for 'the local men will see that the Department can make itself 'independent of them if they do not work properly. There 'were some 48,000 sleepers of the former year's sawing lying 'stranded in the river; during the year these were taken down 'to Riasi for the small sum of Rs. 132, which works out to a 'little over ½ pie per sleeper compared with 3 pies each last 'year. The reason of this was that the best season for floating 'was chosen, that is, when the river was gradually rising from the 'snow-melting in the higher ranges."

We will conclude our present notice of this interesting report with the following which forms its last paragraph. The damage done by bears in the way described is well known in the Jaunsar hills, and a specimen deodar tree, barked as Mr. McDonell describes, may be seen in the Forest Museum at Dehra Dún.

"An instance of damage done to deodar trees of a some- 'what curious kind was observed in one of the Kashmir forests. 'Two young trees were noticed, off which the bark had been 'completely stripped from a height of about 3 feet above ground. 'At first sight it clearly appeared to be the work of the village 'shoemaker, but on going close to the tree it was seen that the

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'stem was scored with scratches as if a scraper had been drawn 'carefully over every part of the barked portion of the stem, 'from top to bottom. This was puzzling in the extreme, but 'at last it was clearly made out to be the work of a bear which 'had evidently torn off the outer bark to get at the thin layer 'of inner bark over the wood. Had it not been for the careful 'scraping, the village shoemaker would have had this added to 'his many sins of commission, for the cuts through the outer 'bark were exactly as if made with an axe."

Report on the Government Botanic Gardens at Lucknow and Saharanpur for 1896-97.

The most interesting thing, from the point of view of a Forester, recorded in the Lucknow Report, is the discovery that the edible date requires a period of dryness when the fruit is ripening; and that, as the time is usually from the middle of August to the end of September, it is not surprising that ripe fruit is rarely producible in Northern India. The demand for Eucalyptus leaves for cleaning boilers is increasing.

Mr. Ridley records how useful the pods of the *Inga dulcis* were during the famine year. As they contain a quantity of sweet pulp they were eagerly searched for under the trees. The Director of Agriculture has sent a Circular on the subject to all the District Boards in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Apparently, the Lucknow experience with the date palm was not echoed in Saharanpur, for Mr. Gollan reports having had bunches of fruit on some of his Persian offsets, which, although small, compared favourably in quality with the imported dates of the Bombay and Calcutta markets. There is nothing much else of note in the Saharanpur Report. As the Gardens are expected to pay their expenses and trees are not so profitable as vegetable and flower seeds, there is little of interest recorded in the way of arboriculture. The Saharanpur Gardens have some valuable tree specimens, and would be more interesting from the picturesque point-of-view if these were taken more care of and added to, and less stress laid on the necessity for a surplus revenue. Sale of seed alone brought in over Rs. 10,000 during the year; we presume the seeds were chiefly those of vegetables in spite of the fact, to which we can testify, that the acclimatized European vegetables distinctly degenerate in cultivation. The Director of Agriculture remarks that "there can be no doubt that, if 'such a course were advisable, the Gardens could easily have done 'more and been made a source of considerable profit to Govern-'ment. But Mr. Gollan is fully aware of the danger of subor-'dinating the scientific value of his Gardens to their mercantile 'possibilities," which to anyone who knows the Gardens sounds

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a little strange. We always thought that Mr. Gollan's efforts to improve the scientific side of the Gardens were not as much appreciated as his excellent work in making both ends meet financially and supplying seeds and plants for sale in Northern India.

V—SHIKAR AND TRAVEL.

After the Wily Boar.

The merry month of March is upon us, and the heat grows daily. Houses are filling in the hills, homeward-bound transports are crowded, and the feminine portion of Anglo-Indian society is packing up. Once more is the voice of the brain-fever bird heard in the land, its agonisingly reiterated three notes proclaiming that the hot weather is nigh. Yet there is joy in the heart of the sportsman—soldier, civilian, planter—all over the shimmering land, for "Dum Spiro Spearo," the thrilling delights of pig-sticking, and the tie for the Bulamabad Cup are at hand.

Not far from the high sandbanks which hem in the sacred river, in a Government-planted rectangular group of mango trees, gratefully breaking the endless expanse of emerald-green wheat crop and sun-baked plain, an indefatigable club secretary has reared a cluster of white tabernacles. In the midst stands the mess-tent; on the outskirts of the trees everybody's horses, tethered in lines with head and heel-ropes, a single blanket their manger by day, their covering at night, a bucket and brush their simple toilet requisites, and sleeping and eating by their side their two attendants with personal luggage of even a more elementary description. Very early on the eventful morning when the Cup is to be ridden for is the camp astir. Persevering and undaunted bearers have roused, dressed, booted and spurred their sahibs, who sit at the doors of their tents sipping the morning tea, without which in these degenerate days no Anglo-Indian seems able to open his eyes. The sun is not yet up, but the crows are. It must, indeed, be an early worm that can circumvent an average Indian crow. There is much shouting at and for servants, and some strong language going on in the tents. Tempers are not sweet at 7 a.m. Gradually everyone emerges, a motley crew, almost every class of European in India represented—full-blown Commissioners, on whom twenty years of the climate have had either a disintegrating or an enlarging effect; Colonels, noisy subalterns, rising "competition wallahs," and sporting police officers, with a detective's eye on a jug. Neither is trade unrepresented, and a neighbouring Rajah, who owns, and has entered some fine Arabs, comes on a marvellously caparisoned steed to view the sport.

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The costumes are as varied as the riders. Some men go in for a turban, some for a mushroom pith hat, and some for a military helmet, with a curtain over the nape of the neck. Some men ride in their tweed and flannel coats, some in white drill or "karkee" cotton; some in merely a flannel shirt; while others are padded over the shoulders and down the spine, as a cricketer pads his legs, but to resist the sun. But one and all grasp a stout male bamboo, six feet six inches long, weighted with lead at the end, and tipped with a fine steel head. Not less various are the mounts. Smart little country or stud-breds, with, perhaps, queer tempers and man-eating propensities; languid-looking little stumbling Arabs, but warranted to look a charging boar in the face; grand, big walers, like English hunters, but, alas! not so staunch to pig as the Arabs.

After dinner the night before, the forty odd horses (it is the horses, not the riders, who enter for the Cup) have been drawn by lot into heats of four each, and now a general move of the competitors is made towards the home preserve, which is to be first drawn. It is a large patch of grass jungle, tall elephant grass, kept sacred for the Cup meet. The sportsmen draw off to the shelter of a native village on either side, and an army of native beaters and a long line of elephants are turned into the covert. Those of the first heat sit with tightened girths and lance in rest. The others bide their time with lighted cigar. To each party an umpire. Nearer and nearer through the jungle comes the roar of the beaters' cries on the fresh morning air. The tall grass waves where the elephants crash through it below, pea-fowl screech scared overhead, quail whirr by, startled black-buck bound frantically into the open plain, while ground game scuds away unheeded under the horses' feet. Suddenly a dark mass lollops quietly out of a corner of the jungle, and giving him a good start, the umpire shouts "Ride!" In an instant a waler, two Arabs, and a country-bred are after him. The first has the pace, and laying himself out at racing speed comes up first with the pig, "galumphing" awkwardly just ahead. He negotiates an eight-foot drain in his stride, and then after a long, straight run over the plain, "jinks" suddenly to the left, just as the waler has gained on him. But the Australian would not or could not turn quickly enough, and this lets an Arab in. The boar leads him over a castor-oil crop, ten feet high, which, taken externally, brings his rider to grief. The waler nicks in again and rattles piggy into a corn crop, but swerves just as his rider gets his spear down for a thrust. It is, of course, the first spear that counts.

Meantime, other pigs have broken covert, and other parties are dispatched after them. At a big meeting like this for the Cup, sows are frequently ridden, though this is not the case in everyday sport. One of the weaker sex, after leading her

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pursuers over a strip of fallow and into a guava orchard, over an Irish on-and-off bank, where they nearly batter their brains out against the low branches, squats defiantly, and charges like a boar. One grey old fellow, a huge black mass, thirty-three inches at shoulder, with bristles erect, and murderous-looking tusks, bears down upon a waler, who swerves at the awesome sight, and his rider, determined not to lose the spear gets it indeed, but at the cost of several somersaults executed between a pig and a horse rapidly retiring in opposite directions. With a crash the Arab lands knee-deep in a water-hole, one of the few sources of promotion left in the country! Meanwhile, the boar, badly wounded, has set himself down under a thorn-tree, foaming at the mouth, and charging desperately, till someone is found with more pluck than discretion to dismount and give him his quietus by a lucky thrust between the shoulders.

The sun is now unpleasantly high in the heavens; the welcome "peg" elephant heaves in sight, and there follows an adjournment to camp for a mid-day halt and snooze. The final heats are run in the afternoon, till the sun is setting rapidly in a cadmium sky, and the short Indian twilight comes on. Then follows a merry feast in the mango grove, with a hoisting of the victor of the Cup round the mess-tent, disturbing the bewildered owls and flying foxes in the branches overhead, and a drowning with song and choruses the pariahs that bay round the village, and the howl of a distant jackal on the plain.—(*Globe, March 1897.*)

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

Analysis of Indian Aconites.

The aconites are among the articles of minor forest produce of interest to Forest Officers in the Himalayas, so we reproduce from the Agricultural Ledger Series the following note by the Director of the Scientific Department at the Imperial Institute. The Bengal specimens were carefully collected by Mr. F. B. Manson.

"*Nepaul Aconite* (Aconitum ferox).—Five samples of roots have 'been examined, one from the Punjab, the other four from Bengal. 'With the exception of one of the latter specimens all these roots 'furnished a crystalline alkaloid which corresponded in every res-'pect with the highly poisonous 'pseudaconitine' of which an 'account has been already published by Mr. F. H. Carr and myself '(*Journal of the Chemical Society, 1897*). A further description of 'the properties and physiological action of this alkaloid will 'shortly be communicated.

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'A crystalline alkaloid was extracted from one specimen of 'roots, certain properties of which do not exactly correspond with 'those of pseudaconitine. If a further supply of these roots can 'be procured, I should like to examine this alkaloid more fully.

'The quantity of pseudaconitine contained in each sample has 'been estimated by a process which consisted in the extraction of 'the alkaloid and the separation from it by hydrolysis of the vera- 'tric acid ; by these means the following results were obtained :—

Name.	District.	Percentage of Alkaloid.
A. ferox	Bashahr through the Conservator of Forests, Panjab.	·40
A. ferox, *var.* crassicaulis ...	Through the Deputy Conservator of Forests, Darjiling, Bengal.	·41
A. ferox	Ditto ditto ...	·30
A. ferox, *var.* crassicaulis .	Ditto ditto ...	·50
A. ferox	Ditto ditto .	·35

'These results are interesting in revealing a larger percentage 'of pseudaconitine than has hitherto been supposed to occur in the 'roots of this plant, in one case as much as half per cent. being 'present. These roots, therefore, contain a larger proportion of 'pseudaconitine than the roots of the closely allied *Aconitum* '*Napellus* contain of aconitine.

'The investigations which are being conducted by the Scienti- 'fic Department render it probable that Nepaul Aconite and its 'active alkaloid, pseudaconitine, will prove to be as valuable medi- 'cinally as the *Aconitum Napellus* and its active alkaloid, aconitine, 'which are now almost exclusively employed in Europe. At pre- 'sent there is no large demand for Nepaul Aconite in the English 'market, chiefly because of the uncertainty which has hitherto sur- 'rounded the nature of its constituents and their precise medical 'action ; even the exact source of Nepaul Aconite is not yet set- 'tled ; although the plant is usually regarded as *Aconitum ferox*, 'there is some reason for doubting whether this is the case. I 'hope that the attention of the Botanical Survey of India will be 'directed to this question,

'*Aconitum Napellus*.—The one sample of the roots of this 'plant came from Kaghan, Panjab. On examination the roots 'were found to contain the same constituent, aconitine, as the 'plant furnishes when grown in Europe. The proportion of this 'alkaloid in the present specimen is very small, and the sample 'compares unfavourably with the roots of European origin which 'appear in the English market."

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I shall be glad to receive for examination specimens of the roots of these two plants from other districts of India, and also of the roots of any other species or varieties of aconite than those with which we have already been supplied.

A further report will shortly be made on the examination of the later series of aconite specimens received in June, 1897, including a preliminary account of the constituents of *Aconitum palmatum*.

Flower-Farming in India.

Considerable attention is now being paid to the cultivation of flowers for the manufacture of essential oils, especially in such countries as Victoria, where the climatic conditions are such as to make the industry a profitable one. In an article contributed to the *Indian Pharmacologist* (January, 1897), W. Lodian, C. E., recommends a more extensive cultivation of flowers in India, and considers it probable that, with the combined advantages of cheap labour and good climate, such an industry would be profitable in that country. At present, the great bulk of the essential oils used in Europe is obtained from the South of France, Italy, and the United States. The following prices are quoted by the author as the value, per acre, under cultivation, of some of the common flowers: bitter-orange blossom, £60 to £80; jasmin, £20 to £30; roses, £70 to £90; and peppermint £45. The author gives a short account of the methods usually adopted for the preparation of essential oils, such as the "enfleurage" process and extraction by methyl chloride, special attention being directed to points which are likely to be overlooked by a beginner. The farmer is also recommended to keep himself well acquainted with the extensive modern literature on the subject, in order to be able to take advantage of the various improvements suggested by experts from time to time.—(*Imperial Institute Journal*).

Distribution of Prizes and Certificates at the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun.

This annual ceremony took place at Dehra, on the 1st April, the Inspector-General of Forests presiding. He was supported

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by the Director and Deputy Director and Instructors of the School, and by the members of the Board of Control, *viz.:* Mr. H. C. Hill, Mr. E. F. Elliott and Mr. A. Smythies, Conservators of Forests, with their Secretary, Mr. F. B. Bryant, Assistant Inspector-General. The proceedings were opened with the Director's Report of the year. He began by mentioning that his own acquaintance with the Class about to leave was very slight, as he had been away nearly the whole time, his place being occupied by Mr. J. W. Oliver; that the day's ceremony was the seventh that had taken place since the function was started; and that he owed his best thanks to the staff of the School and Forest Circle, as well as to others who, like Mr. Reynolds, Mr. Duthie and Mr. Collins, had assisted in the teaching and examinations.

The results of the examinations were not so good as in 1897, for in the Upper Class there were 8 failures out of 28, though the whole of the Lower Class (9) passed. Two students obtained Honours, bracketed equal; they were G. O. Coombs and D. A. Stracey. The other Upper Class passed students were J. P. Gregson, Govind Rao Sapre, C. Medworth, Lakshmi Sahai, Ashutosh Chackrabarty, L. S. Jones, H. C. Ross, Bhag Ram, B. K. Ukidwe, F.C. Purkis, Oung Ban, G. F. Matthews, S. C. Lee, C. A. Clerk, A. M. Handy, J. P. Nazareth, H. McL. Carson; and a sick certificate was given to J. W. Hamilton.

The Medals all went to Coombs, Stracey and Gregson; those of the Lower Class to Ram Saran and Maqbul Nabi Khan. The Prizes were won by Carson, Stracey, Coombs, Gregson, Janes, Ram Saran and Khemanand; some being for practical work, some for Notebooks, some for Herbaria and Entomological Collections, both of which were excellent, while the special prize for Athletics, given by Mr. Ribbentrop, went to Purkis. After some further general remarks, the Certificates, Medals and Prizes were distributed by Mrs. F. Beadon-Bryant, and then the Inspector-General began his address to the students in which he commented on the difficulty of the Examinations, the unfortunately large number of failures and other matters; and after complimenting the Director of the past year (Mr. Oliver) and the more permanent and present Director (Mr. Gamble) gave some good advice to the students about to leave. The proceedings concluded with lusty cheers for Mrs. Bryant, the Inspector-General, the Board of Control and Directors and Staff.

The day was unfortunately very hot, so that the number of visitors collected in the big tent was not so great as usual; still most of the residents of Dehra appeared, and among them were noticed especially Colonels Begbie (2nd P. W. O. Goorkhas) Strahan, R. E., and Gore, R. E.; Messrs. Streatfeild, Way and Bell, C. S.; Mr. R. Thompson, late Conservator, C. P., and the principal native gentlemen of Dehra.

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Assimilation in Green Plants.

At a meeting of the Cambridge Philosophical Society, held on November 8th, 1897, the President, Mr. F. Darwin, made a communication on a method of demonstrating assimilation in green plants. Farmer has shown that the protoplasm ceases to circulate in an Elodea leaf subjected to a stream of hydrogen and kept in the dark; also that if the preparation is illuminated the circulation begins again. The cessation of the circulation depends on the protoplasm being deprived of oxygen, the reappearance of the movement is a consequence of the fresh supply of oxygen yielded by the chloroplasts in light. The experiment can be more simply performed by mounting in water two or three Elodea leaves under a single cover glass, and sealing the preparation with melted wax and paraffin. The leaves if kept in the dark, begin after a few hours to suffer for want of oxygen, and after six or seven hours the protoplasm ceases to circulate The movement may be restored by exposing the preparations in sunlight or to incandescent gas flame. Thus, a demonstration. in its way as interesting as Engelmann's bacterial method may be very simply performed.—(*Nature.*)

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

March 3rd, 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—The deliveries for the first two months of the year amount to 5,257 loads, against 3,922 loads for the same period of 1897. Of this, February's quota is 2,770 loads against 2,145 loads in February, 1897. Floating cargoes remain scarce and dear, but with everything in their favour, London prices have not been altogether satisfactory during the month.

ROSEWOOD. EAST INDIA.—Is in good demand, and small lots just arrived will no doubt sell well.

SATINWOOD. EAST INDIA.—The demand is quiet and stocks sufficient.

EBONY. EAST INDIA.—Is of slow sale and therefore the stock, although small, is sufficient.

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PRICE CURRENT.

Indian Teak	per load	£9	to	£14
Rosewood	„ ton	£9	to	£10
Satinwood	„ s. ft	5d.	to	12d.
Ebony	„ ton	£7	to	£8

Denny, Mott & Dickson's Report.

1ST MARCH, 189-.

TEAK.—The landings in the Docks in London last month consisted of 3,557 loads of logs and 979 loads of planks and other scantling, against deliveries of 2,038 loads of logs and 667 loads of planks and scantling. The Dock stocks at date analyse as follows:—

	12,097	Loads of Logs	as against	7,301	Loads at the same date last year		
	3,255	„ Planks	„	1,233	„	„	„
	20	„ Blocks	„	90	„	„	„
Total	15,372	Loads	„	8,624	Loads	„	„

The above stocks appear heavy, but must be discounted by the large proportion of inferior wood which continues to be very unmarketable. A pleasing feature in the position is the marked improvement in the quality of the imports from Rangoon. The demand for consumption has been well sustained, and owing to the renewed activity on the shipbuilding rivers a fair business has been doing in floating cargoes, which will tend to diminish the imports to London for some months to come. Prices continue to harden, and the position promises to be a very strong one as far as good logs are concerned. The importation of planks however is being overdone, and prices show a weaker tendency, as speculative parcels unsuitable for first-class work tend to accumulate not only in London but at the outports.

Business during February was generally satisfactory, and a steady development of the shipbuilding demand and of general consumption is confidently anticipated, always provided political troubles do not assume a serious phase.

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MARKET RATES FOR PRODUCTS.

Tropical Agriculturist, March, 1898.

Cardamoms	per	lb.	3s. 4d.	to	4s.
Croton seeds	,,	cwt.	50s.	to	60s.
Cutch	,,	,,	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic, Madras	,,	,,	27s. 6d.	to	35s.
,, Kino	,,	,,	30s.	to	37s.
Indiarubber, Assam	,,	lb.	2s. 0½d.	to	2s. 6½d.
,, Burma	,,	,,	1s. 4d.	to	2s. 6d.
Myrabolams, Bombay	,,	cwt.	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
,, Madras	,,	,,	4s. 6d.	to	6s.
,, Jubbulpore	,,	,,	4s.	to	7s.
,, Calcutta	,,	,,	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	,,	,,	7s.	to	7s. 6d.
Oil, Lemon Grass	,,	lb.	8d.		...
Orchella, Ceylon	,,	cwt.	10s.	to	12s. 6d.
Sandalwood, Logs	,,	ton.	£30	to	£50.
,, Chips	,,	,,	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood	,,	,,	£4	to	£5.
Seed lac	,,	cwt.	70s.	to	80s.
Tamarind, Madras	,,	,,	4s.	to	6s.

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VOL. XXIV] [No. 5.

THE INDIAN FORESTER,

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY,

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL.

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN.

MAY, 1898.

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THE
INDIAN FORESTER.

Vol. XXIV.] May, 1898. [No. 5.

The oldest India-rubber Plantation in the World.

(*Translation.*)

The oldest Caoutchouc plantation in the world is perhaps one existing in the west of Java, in the province of Kranong. A former proprietor of the Pamanockan Tjiassan Estate which is the biggest private property in Java, containing 540,000 Dutch acres, had most of his land under coffee until 1872. Finding the cultivation of this plant was no longer lucrative, he planted some of the land up with *Ficus elastica*. The coffee plantations had already been more or less cleared of forest growth, so that the planting of *Ficus elastica* cost less than thirty shillings per acre. The soil of these coffee gardens had become useless for other agricultural purposes; and had not *Ficus elastica* (Karet) been planted in time, would only have become covered with poor forest growth. The trees were planted 8¼ yards apart, or 72 trees to the acre. The area planted was 72½ acres, containing 5,200 stems. The trees were first tapped when the plantation was 14 years old, and the yield for that and the six following years was :—

Year.	lbs.	Average-oz. per stem.	Value.
1886	5,512	17	£ 600
1887	4,954	15	„ 540
1888	1,514	4	„ 165
1890	3,307	10	„* 360
1891	6,113	18	„ 387
1892	5,992	18	„ 256
1895	3,197	10	„ 411
Total	30,589	Average per year per stem 6 ozs.	£2,719

* This note is taken from a report of the Netherland Indian Commercial Bank, in which the money results are called "net income," presumably after deducting the original cost of the planting operations.

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72½ acres thus, it is said, yielded in 7 years a surplus of £2,719, or per acre per annum £5-8-0. The yield was 71 lbs. per acre per annum during this period. During the 23 years from the establishment of the plantation in 1872 till 1875 the net yield per acre per annum amounted to £1-12-10.

WAGENINGEN, HOLLAND: 6*th January* 1898.

A. H. BERKHOUT,
Late Consr. of Java Forests.

The bark of Cleistanthus Collinus as a fish poison.

In the "Indian Forester" for June 1896, Mr. W. F. Biscoe drew attention to the economic uses of the *kodarsi* tree in the Nizam's Dominions. *Kodarsi* (Telugu) and *Oduvan* (Tamil) are the vernacular names of the *Cleistanthus collinus, Benth*, which was formerly known as *Lebidieropsis orbicularis, Mull.-Arg.* It was stated that the tree is largely used, and has a valuable timber, which, in its pole stage, is considered as good as teak.

On the authority of Dr. Ainslie and Dr. Roxburgh the fruit of this tree is reported to be exceedingly poisonous, one pagoda weight of the capsule in powder is believed to be sufficient to kill a man. The leaves and roots are also harmful, and the first is avoided by animals. The chemical examiner of Madras within the past twelve years has been in a position to confirm these reports, and has discovered the leaves and fruits of the tree being employed for criminal purposes in South Arcot, South Canara, Malabar and other districts in the Presidency. Mr. Biscoe, in the extract above referred to, specifies the deleterious properties of the bark. He writes: "The bark must contain some poisonous property, for not only do white ants leave it severely alone, but it is used here for poisoning fish. The inner bark placed on the sores of sheep and goats is efficacious in healing them and in destroying maggots."

Wishing to examine the bark of *Cleistanthus* with the object of detecting the active principle, Mr. Biscoe obligingly sent me a parcel of a few pounds of the freshly dried bark, together with some of the capsules, for chemical analysis. The bark was in the form of thick incurved pieces, of a reddish brown colour, with a dark brown exterior. The powder was of a light-red colour, having an astringent taste, but destitute of any marked odour.

The amounts of moisture and mineral matter were estimated in a small sample of the powdered bark, and another portion was

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treated to the successive action of different solvents which revealed the following approximate composition :—

Moisture	...	...	6·70
Fat, &c. (ether extract)	...	...	·78
Spirit extract	...	...	32·42
Water extract	...	...	7·86
Pectin, &c., by difference		...	2·45
Crude fibre	...	...	42·44
Ash ...	...	...	7·35
	Total	...	100·00

The fatty matter removed by ether possessed no peculiar reactions, and as usual, was associated with chlorophyll. The spirit extract was of a fine red colour, and left a brittle residue when evaporated down to dryness ; it consisted almost entirely of tannin. Duplicate estimations of the amount of tannin in the original bark gave an average of 33·3 per cent., a quantity much above that found in ordinary tanning barks. An examination of the various extracts revealed no distinct evidence of such principles as alkaloids or glucosides, and it seems conclusive that the activity of the bark resides in the astringent substance.

Those who have studied the subject of fish poisons will have noticed the wide range of vegetable products used in this connection. *Kaka-mari*, the berries of *Anamirta Cocculus*; bark of *Walsura Piscidia* ; the fresh bark of various leguminous plants, as *Tephrosia*, *Derris*, *Mundulea*, *Erythrina* ; the pungent flower-heads of *Spilanthes* ; the fruits of species of *Randia* ; and the barks of Euphorbiaceous trees as *Flueggia*, *Macaranga* and *Securinega*. Some of the last-named are characterised as being rich in tannin.

Fish seem to be particularly sensitive to substances of an acrid, bitter or astringent nature. Plants containing the soap-like principle. called saponin, are, without exception, fatal to fish life. The toxicity of tannic acid or tannin does not seem to have been noticed by previous observers, but its occurrence in plants used for destroying fish in which more active principles are absent, leave grounds for supposing that this widely distributed plant constituent is harmful.

A few preliminary experiments have been made by mixing in pure water, containing live fish, a few grains of commercially pure tannic acid. The experiments have shown that the acid has a decidedly toxic action on small fish. From the movements of the fish it was evident that the acid was a most objectionable addition to the water, but whether the tannin itself killed them, or, by abstracting oxygen from the water, indirectly produced suffocation, must be left to physiologists to decide.

CALCUTTA :
16*th April* 1898.

D. HOOPER.

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II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

An Imperial Forest Service Blazer.

SIR,—

I have read the remarks of 'A Coopers Hill Man' on the above subject, and I wish to endorse them very strongly, especially the portion alluding to the position taken up by Coopers Hill men with reference to the proposed Forest Blazer.

That there are some Coopers Hill men who oppose the idea of a Departmental Blazer, I know to be a fact, but I believe them to form a very small minority, and I do not think there is much to be said in favour of their position. If we are proud of our profession, as we should be, and wish to hold together, we should give our support to any movement like the present which trends towards unity. It will not involve burning our old Coopers Hill colours. There is plenty of room for both; but what I maintain is that we want a Special Forest Blazer, and I think we are at last likely to get one.

ANOTHER COOPERS HILL MAN.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Note on the Working-Plan for the Nilambur Valley Teak Plantations.

1. The plan for the Nilambur plantations has been prepared with great care by an officer whose theoretical and practical knowledge of forestry is fully evidenced on every page of his excellent report, and has, after due scrutiny, received the sanction of the Madras Government. It is therefore with considerable diffidence that I venture to submit remarks on the work, and to offer a few suggestions which occur to me after an inspection of the Nilambur plantations.

2. Mr. Lushington has rendered excellent service by the compilation ofa clear and succinct history of the creation of the plantation, not merely in regard to the working-plan under

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notice, but in connection with the treatment generally of one of our most important forest trees in India. Reading this history, the practical forester is at once struck with the great divergence of opinions expressed by the several officers, who inspected the plantations from time to time, opinions varying from the most optimistic to an almost entire condemnation of the scheme. An examination of the area cultivated, as it exists at present, offers, however, to my mind a sufficient explanation of the difference in the opinions recorded.

3. The soil varies greatly: some portions consist of a deep, rich, and at the same time, well-drained alluvium; in others it is composed of ridges on which the laterite is exposed to the day. Between those two extremes, the one the most favourable imaginable, the other entirely useless, for the growth of teak, soils of every degree of suitability are found.

As regards the earliest plantations they were, as a rule, confined to the alluvial stretches, and consequently show excellent results, but later on the selection of the areas was less scrupulously attended to, and the newer plantations contain considerable areas which should never have been entirely cleared of the original forest growth and exposed, and even if this had been done, should most certainly not have been planted with teak. It is undeniable that even on soils of this class good teak trees are sometimes found interspersed in the natural forest, but such have established themselves on spots selected by nature and have grown under conditions entirely different from those existing on a regular plantation.

4. The great differences existing in the several portions of the plantations have decided Mr. Lushington to separate the present growth into two classes and blanks. Whenever I have had the opportunity of examining his classification between the first and second class, I convinced myself of the correctness of his separation, but I am impressed with the fact that his second class forests contain now and then considerable areas which do not come up to the standard adopted by him for that class, and which might with advantage be placed in a lower category. This, however, is a question which may stand over till the working-plan is revised on a future occasion. The admirable history compiled of former operations, and the picture we have before us on the ground, however, clearly indicate our action with regard to the future extensions of the plantations. I do not think it will be necessary to confine our operations entirely to the limited areas which will grow first class forests, but we must fix a point, as regards the physical qualities of the soil, beyond which teak-planting should not be extended. We have ample means of doing so, for though during the first few years of the life of a teak plantation and immediately after the natural forest has been removed, the growth of the young plants does not indicate the unsuitability of the soil to the same extent as in after

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life, the fact remains that before the plantations have reached an age of ten years the surface soil or laterite deteriorates owing to complete exposure during a large part of the year, and the growth of the plants shows a constantly increasing want of vigour. I would suggest, therefore, that the soils in plantations ten years of age and over should be carefully classed in accordance with their physical qualities, especially as to depth, and the degree of intermixture with laterite nodules, and that it be ascertained under what conditions of soil a serious lagging behind in the growth in height of the teak trees commences. Once this is ascertained no teak-planting operations whatsoever should take place on soils of such or a worse character. It would be advisable to make this classification of soils in advance of planting operations and prepare a soil map of the areas which are still available for extension of the plantation. I am in favour of excluding in future even the smallest unsuitable areas. The interspersion in the teak area of plots of natural forest of a different character can only be beneficial, whereas, on the other hand, an unhealthy teak forest, grown on unsuitable soil, must always be a source of danger, for it is in such forests that insects and fungi make their first appearance. This is by no means pure theory, but is borne out by practical observations in Burma.

5. It may, in this connection, perhaps, even become a question for consideration whether it would not be advisable to cut down some of the most inferior teak stock and to replant the areas with *Xylia dolabriformis*, mahogany and other soil-improving species in mixture. Fairly extensive experiments have been made from time to time with the introduction and cultivation of mahogany, and I observe from Mr. Lushington's working-plan that he recommends not merely the abandonment of these efforts, but the removal of the existing trees. This has already been effected in 24 acres in Ramalur, * and the same procedure is proposed in regard to a fourth area in Aravillykava † in 1900. In my opinion this decision is, to say the least, premature. Mahogany has never had a fair chance at Nilambur, and has been, sylviculturally, wrongly employed and treated from the outset. The unavoidable failure of any attempt to mix trees so entirely antagonistic in their characteristics as teak and mahogany of the same age, should have been foreseen. The existence of survivors of mahogany in spite of this proves the vitality and recuperative power of the tree under the climatic conditions which the Nilambur forests offer. The trees of the *Swietenia Mahogani* species in the Aravillykava block are no doubt poor specimens, but they look fairly healthy now, and owing to the many vicissitudes of their early life, have a gnarled appearance

* See page 69 of the working-plan, Chapter V, paragraph 3 (2).

† See pages 68 and 69 of the working-plan, Chapter V, paragraph 3 (1).

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and should produce finely figured and valuable timber. If the block in which these trees grow is to come under the axe in 1900 in order to make room for a pure teak plantation, I hope they will be spared and placed under more favourable conditions of growth by the removal of trees overhead.

6. In this connection I would also point out that though it may be advisable to remove the Ceara, the necessity for the extraction of healthy teak trees in vigorous growth does not seem clear. The desire to create uniformity of age in the several blocks is too pronounced, and but thinly covers the desire to utilize some larger trees for the sake of the immediate revenue. I am inclined to doubt whether for some years the areas will show the full power of production of teak. They have been under this tree and Ceara for many years and have deteriorated, not merely owing to the characteristics of these trees, but to the treatment which was in vogue of clearing the forests of all undergrowth and bushes.

7. If it be decided to carry on further experiments with mahogany, which I feel inclined to recommend, I would suggest that the trees may be planted in small groups, either pure or in intermixture with more suitable companions, such as *Xylia dolabriformis*, *Pterocarpus Marsupium* and others, and that these small areas may be fenced. Trees planted under unsuitable conditions and together with entirely uncongenial companions are exposed to dangers, such as borers and sambur, which may not threaten them to the same degree under more favourable circumstances.

I would not even entirely condemn the *Swietenia Mahoani* in favour of its near relative the *macrophylla*. It is true, the latter has shown greater vigour when in company with teak, chiefly, however, in localities less suitable for the latter species, but there is not sufficient proof that the *Swietenia Mahogani* will not, under more favourable circumstances, prove a success as well. However, even *macrophylla* timber commands a higher price than teak, and it is a matter of great importance that it is not necessary to plant either of the Swietenias on the best teak soil; both species are much less exacting in this respect than the teak tree and improve the soil, whereas the latter impoverishes it to a great extent, especially where the forest is kept free of undergrowth, as in Nilambur. This clearance is a great mistake and opposed to all rational principles of sylviculture. The practice was evidently introduced by Mr. Ferguson, who had been trained in Scotch plantations, but survived his reign until quite recently.

8. With regard to thinning, I am aware opinions very greatly differ; but I am personally convinced that as a rule it has been somewhat too severe, and that many of the small side branches which have formed low down on the stem of the majority of the teak trees, and which may more or less affect the

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future value of the timber, are to a great extent due to this fact. The crown development cannot follow the too rapid disturbance of the canopy, and side lights cause the formation of side branches. These branchlets exist to a much less degree in a neighbouring private plantation which was never systematically thinned, but in which the dominant trees have nevertheless distinctly declared themselves. This is a matter I would recommend for further study, as the correct sylvicultural treatment in this respect is as yet by no means finally settled. The prescriptions regarding thinning operations are somewhat too uniform. The operations should follow the conditions of each class of forest, and should vary, both as regards time and severity, in forests created on different soils. This has frequently been overlooked in the past, and the fact that the material is so easily saleable at a considerable profit has, I am afraid, in many instances led to thinning out of trees which it was not sylviculturally necessary to remove. However, I do not think that any permanent harm has yet been done anywhere, and if the crowns in the older plantations are now allowed to reclose overhead, and undergrowth is encouraged instead of removed, it is probable that the side branchlets mentioned above will disappear without leaving any permanent flaws in the timber.

9. The age of exploitability, which Colonel Beddome placed from 60 to 80 years, has probably been more correctly estimated by Mr. Lushington, who, very wisely leaves the future treatment and reproduction of the forest to be settled and decided upon by future generations of foresters. The forecast of the final yield and of financial results made by Mr. Lushington is probably somewhat sanguine, but it will stand a considerable reduction and still show a profit which cannot be realized from the land in any other way. The past history of the plantation has proved that the operations repay the outlay thereon at an early age, and the capital value stored up in the forests created, guarantees an exceedingly fine net income for the future, several times as large as could be obtained from good paddy land under permanent cultivation. The chief reason for this is the favourable situation of the Nilambur plantation as regards export, which makes the value of the material *in situ* at least twice as much as in any other locality known to me.

10. Under such conditions I think it is false economy to restrict annual extension to 80 acres, as proposed in the last clause of Appendix D on page 38 of the working-plan; for, in my opinion, it will be easy to prevent over-crowding the market with saplings, even if thinnings be carried out over more extensive areas, for the thinnings can, in accordance with the demands of the market and with benefit to the forest of the future, be made lighter than has hitherto been the practice.

11. My advice is therefore to extend the annual planting operations over as large an area of the suitable soil available as

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means will permit, but I beg to reiterate that I consider the previous selection of the areas to be planted a *sine quâ non*, and I would therefore recommend the early preparation of a detailed soil map. It would not seem necessary that such a map should be mathematically accurate, for all that is required is that the areas selected for planting should be easily recognisable on the ground, that a forecast should be possible of the areas available, and that the extensions should be made in accordance with a preconsidered plan. The art of planting teak successfully has, in the course of years, been thoroughly acquired, so that even if the area planted annually were trebled or quadrupled, no great increase in supervision would seem to be demanded. To what extent the manual labour required to increase the annual outturn in planting operations is available is a question that must be decided locally.

The objections made by Colonel Beddome against the greatest possible extension of the Nilambur teak plantation, recorded in paragraph 27 of its history, are not sound. There is no reason why the naturally grown mountainous teak forests should be neglected, but they will never repay an outlay of money to the same extent as the Nilambur plantation. The physical qualities of teak grown on rich well-drained alluvium, are always superior to those of the more slow growing mountain trees. This has been once more proved to be true, for the outturn of the 24 acres in the Ramalur block has been pronounced of the very best quality by the Calicut trade and has been paid for accordingly. Finally, there is no fear that the few thousand acres over which the Nilambur teak plantation can be extended will glut the teak market of the world.

12. It would appear that the experiments carried out with the introduction of rubber-yielding trees have so far been unsuccessful, but I feel nevertheless disinclined to agree in the proposal that the experiments of making the Nilambur Basin an important centre of rubber supply should be discontinued. I agree, as in the case of mahogany, that the areas most suitable for teak plantations should not, as a rule, be utilised for this purpose, but it would appear to me that in the first instance the tapping operations, mentioned on page 36 of the working-plan, were not carried out with sufficient care, the produce being much mixed with dirt, and that though the Ceara may ultimately be found to be unsuitable, this is no proof that other rubber-yielding trees will be equally so. To me it seems that the Nilambur basin is eminently adapted for the growth of rubber-yielding plants, and the facility of export renders the prospect of a trade in a product which can bear a land transport of hundreds of miles particularly attractive. The demand for rubber, and its price, are constantly increasing, and I would strongly advise that experiments should be continued till the most suitable rubber-yielding tree is found, which will grow in localities not required for extension of the teak plantation.

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The country at the foot of the Nilgheries seems to be eminently adapted for the growth of *Ficus elastica*, and I beg to recommend that the introduction of this tree in these localities, as well as in the Nilambur plantation, which may have been classed as teak-producing, may be experimented with. The seed of the tree and a memorandum on its cultivation may be obtained from Assam. I may perhaps mention that both in Assam and Egypt this tree is now being cultivated by private enterprise.

B. RIBBENTROP.

IV.-REVIEWS.

Forest Work in South Australia n 1895-97.

We have to acknowledge with thanks the receipt of the Annual Reports upon the State Forest Administration in South Australia for the years ending June 1896 and 1897.

It is noticed that while the area of Forest Reserves and Plantations stands at some 200,000 acres, the receipts from all sources, exclusive of the rents of leased lands, aggregate only £1,200 to £1,300, and therefore it would seem that the yield per acre per annum is only about one and a half pence.

Plantations within enclosures seem to cover 12,299 acres, and these are being annually extended, but no indication is given in the reports of the growing stock on the remaining 188,000 acres, and no intimation can be found of the steps which are being taken to bring this considerable area into a higher state of productiveness. The chief work of the Department for the past fifteen years has clearly been the rearing and free distribution of 4,110,026 trees, and for the past six years 1,202,539 vines have been distributed in a similar way from the nurseries. It is not actually said so, but presumably these latter have been given away like the trees. Considering the Department is conducted at a loss of about £3,000 a year, it might be worth considering whether these plants should not be charged for at cost, or even a nominal, price. Experience in India shows that better results often come about from the distribution of a smaller number of fruit trees on payment than would be found were they free. The recipients take more care of those trees they pay for than those which they obtain *gratis*. The area planted in 1897 is returned as 318 acres, in

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which nearly 15,000 plants were put out and over 50 per cent. appear to have established themselves even in a year of drought This in an excellent result, and the area will no doubt be sufficiently stocked, provided the failures are generally distributed.

Three thousand date palms have been put out at Lakes Hany and Hergatt, and for the past five years good dates have ripened, showing the success of this experiment.

The financial results showing so large a deficit certainly require justification, and that part of the reports dealing with revenue and expenditure might well be amplified in future reports, so as to show together with the progress the cost to the State of the different measures adopted.

The Burma Forest Administration Report for 1896-97.

The above Forest Report is now to hand, and records a great deal of hard work done and progress attained in face of great difficulties by a staff considerably too weak for the task imposed upon it. It is prefaced by the order of the Local Government which we will first notice. At the beginning of the year the area of reserved forests in Lower Burma, including the Tenasserim and Pegu circles, was 7,442 square miles, while in Upper Burma, including the Eastern and Western circles, it was 5,438 square miles. "In the Eastern circle 524 square miles and in the Western 'circles 857 square miles of new reserves were added. The total 'area of reserved forests in Burma at the close of the year was '14,058 square miles, of which 845 square miles were burdened 'with *taungya* privileges, against 12,880 square miles and 709 'square miles in the previous years. Enquiries were held by Forest 'Settlement Officers over areas representing approximately 2,758 'square miles. Projects for the reservation of further large 'areas were pending at the close of the year." On the subject of Working-Plans the following remarks of the Government will be found interesting.

"A working-plans party was employed in the Tenasserim 'circle during the year and collected data for the Kyaukmasi 'and Saing-Yanè reserves. The working-plan for the West Swa, 'Lônyan and Sabyin reserves was sanctioned during the year, 'as were the proposals for the systematic working of teak in the 'unreserved forests of certain divisions of the Pegu circle. A 'working-plans party commenced work in the Pyinmana forests 'and completed the field operations in connection with the Yeni 'reserve. A working-plan for the Mohnyin reserve in the Katha 'division, which was prepared by the Divisional Officer, was also

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'sanctioned during the year, In their orders on last year's report 'the Government of India advised that all available resources of 'the province for the preparation of working-plans should for some 'years be concentrated on the leased forests of Upper Burma. 'If this recommendation is adopted, the working-plans party now 'employed in the Tenasserim circle will be transferred to Upper 'Burma at the close of the present working season. While re-'cognizing the need for working-plans in Upper Burma the 'Lieutenant-Governor is not fully satisfied of the expediency of 'postponing such operations indefinitely in Lower Burma. He 'proposes to consider the question further at the end of the pre-'sent working season. In view of the approaching expiry of the 'leases of the Chindwin forests, at present held by the Bombay 'Burma Trading Corporation, the question of the future admin-'istration of the forests was considered during the year of report. 'It was decided that they should be examined as thoroughly as 'possible during the present camping season, with a veiw to 'obtaining an estimate of the timber probably available for ex-'traction. This examination is now being carried out."

We are glad to read the following remarks :

"In his Resolution on the Forest Report of the previous year 'the Lieutenant-Governor made certain remarks on the subject of 'compounding forest offences. The subject again occupied his 'attention during the year, and reports were called for as to the 'manner in which the compounding sections of the Act and 'Regulation were put in force. In only a very few instances were 'officers able to specify particular cases of oppression which 'had come to their notice, a circumstance which indicates that 'blackmailing by forest subordinates is of less common occurrence 'than some officers have suggested."

The same remark would probably be true in other Provinces beside Burma.

The vexed question of fire-protection demands some notice; the *Government Review* saying:—

"In Lower Burma operations for fire-protection were attempt-'ed over 1,056·13 square miles and were successful over 981·4 square 'miles against 781·09 square miles and 711·38 square miles in the 'previous year. The cost was Rs. 51-5-9 per square mile attempted. 'The comparatively large extent (6·5 square miles) of plantations 'burnt in the Pegu circle was an unsatisfactory feature of the 'year's work. In Upper Burma, operations for protection were 'only successful over 324 square miles out of 800 square miles at-'tempted, as compared with 567 square miles successfully protected 'out of 526 square miles in the previous year. In the Eastern 'circle the area successfully protected amounted to 77 per cent. of 'the total area attempted, but in the Western circle the area suc-'cessfully protected was only 13 per cent., as compared with 85 'per cent. on the previous year. The Conservator attributes the

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'want of success to the inadequacy of the measures adopted and 'to the inexperience of the local Forest Officers. Altogether 153 'fires occurred during the year, of which 8 were supposed to 'be malicious."

The Lieutenant-Governor states that he is confirmed in his opinion previously expressed, that the utility of fire-protection is undoubted, and should be pushed forward as rapidly as circumstances permit.

"The question of the reproduction of teak by means of '*taungyas*, which was referred to in last year's report, has been 'the subject of discussion during the year. The controversy dis-'closed considerable divergence of opinion among the more experi-'enced Forest Officers. It is clear on the one hand that teak '*taungyas* should not be attempted where the soil and other phy-'sical conditions are unsuitable to the tree, and that their estab-'lishment is unnecessary where natural regeneration of teak exists 'or where it can be obtained by improvement fellings. On the 'other hand, teak *taungyas* have proved of great benefit in loca-'lities otherwise suitable for the growth of the tree, where little 'or no teak existed already, or where dense bamboo cover had 'hitherto prevented the possibility of regeneration. *In fine*, the 'question is governed entirely by local conditions."

"The total area of *taungya* plantations at the close of the year 'was 47,154 acres, of which 17,177 acres were in the Tenasserim and '29,983 acres in the Pegu circle. In the Eastern circle the area of 'teak *taungya* plantations was 437 acres, while 81 acres were 'planted with cutch in the Western circle. The total of *taungya* 'plantations in Upper Burma at the close of the year was 1,108" acres mostly in teak, but to a considerable extent in cutch, as Burma men call *Acacia Catechu*. The use of the word "cutch" to denote both the tree and its product is misleading, and this should be altered.

Another inconvenience in the Report is the constant use of vernacular words, not only as names for trees, but for what are presumably topographical details like "*chaung*," and politico-social customs like "*bobabaing*," which in one place, however, is defined as "ancestral lands." A glossary of vernacular terms becomes a necessity in Burmese Reports.

Considerable efforts are being made to introduce "shisham or sissoo" on a large scale. Why, is not stated, but it is curious if the long list of Burma trees does not include many as good or better indigenous species. It is not stated whether "shisham or sissoo" means *Dalbergia latifolia*, *or D. Sissoo*, both of which are called 'shisham' in different parts of India. Probably it is the latter, though the former is a more valuable timber. Experimental cultivation has not been particularly successful, both rhea and mahogany being generally failures, though *Eucalyptus*, with its limited utility, has done well in some places. What possible

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object there can be in growing Eucalyptus trees in the home of teak, ironwood and padouk, it is difficult to understand.

On the subject of the teak timber outturn, the *Government Review* says that 757,605 cubic feet were worked out in Tenasserim, and 1,768,513 cubic feet in Pegu, 4,236 tons in the Eastern, and a small quantity only in the Western circle. The outturn of timber extracted by the chief lessees came to 168,603 tons, with a revenue of Rs. 16,73,611.

The quantity of teak timber imported into Moulmein by the Salween river was 84,478 tons, while 159,048 logs were brought down from Upper Burma by the Irrawaddy and Salween to Rangoon.

The Total export of the year in teak timber came to 191,152 tons, valued at Rs. 1,59,48,828.

We are very glad to read the following paragraph, but if we are not mistaken, the proposal is no new thing, for we have heard of it and heard it discussed for several years.

"A proposal was put forward during the year by the Conservator of the Eastern circle, Mr. Nisbet, for the establishment of a vernacular forest school in Burma. Since the establishment of the Central Forest School at Dehra Dún various efforts have been made to induce Burmans and Karens to go there for training, but these efforts have met with little success, principally owing to the difficulty of obtaining students with a requisite knowledge of English. It is desirable that the subordinate Forest staff should receive some regular and scientific training, and it is now proposed to provide this at a local school. The scheme has received the general approval of the Government of India, and detailed proposals have been submitted for carrying it into execution."

The Sawbwas of tributary States are granted leases of the forests in their territories, and one of them was fined Rs. 10,000 for indiscriminate cutting.

Tenasserim Circle.—The area of the reserved forests is 4,142 square miles, in 7 divisions.

"The decrease of 190 square miles in the area of reserved forests is due chiefly to the over estimation of the area of the Yènwè reserve, Shwegyin division. It is noteworthy that when the reserve was proposed by Mr. H. B. Ward, Deputy Conservator of Forests, the area was estimated at 100 square miles; subsequently at settlement the estimate was raised to 250 square miles.

"The traverse survey reduces the actual area to 70 square miles.

"One hundred and three square miles are now under settlement. Five hundred and sixty square miles of forests were successfully protected from fire, and 1,081 acres of new *taungya* teak plantations were made.

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"During the year 24,029 logs, or 15,152 tons teak and 587 'logs, or 520 tons of other woods were extracted and brought to 'depôt by Government agency, and 14,668 tons teak, and 51,634 'tons woods other than teak extracted under licenses.

"The gross yield of the circle was teak 29,837 tons, woods 'other than teak 57,723 tons, firewood and charcoal 36,830 tons, 'bamboos 3,063,255, canes 11,824,567, and other minor forest 'produce value Rs. 8,733.

"The gross revenue of the circle was Rs. 20,82,402, and the 'gross expenditure Rs. 5,95,244, leaving a net revenue of Rs. '14,87,158."

A working-plan for the West Swa, Lônyan and Sabyin reserves was sanctioned, and details were collected for working-plans for the Kyaukmasi reserve of 40 square miles, and for 85 square miles of the Saing-Yanè reserve. The annual plans of operations could not be fully carried out, here or in the other circle, for want of staff principally.

On the subject of *fire-protection*, little has been attempted, though we are glad to notice a small increase of area. The report says :—

"The following shows the area over which protection was 'attempted and the area over which it was successful for the years '1895-96 and 1896-97, as also the cost per square mile :—

	1895-96.	1896-97.
	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.
Protection attempted	390·42	562·32
Protection successful	374·00	560·04
	Rs.	Rs.
Cost per square mile attempted ...	46	43
Cost per square mile protected ...	48	43
	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.
Failures	16·42	2·28
Of which plantations	0·75	0·07

"Altogether 26 fires occurred during the year."

Grazing.—Of the total of 4,142 square miles of reserved forests, 3,818 square miles were closed to all animals throughout the year, 89 square miles were opened part of the year to all animals, 6 square miles part of the year to browzers only, and 199 square miles were opened to all animals throughout the year. The estimated value of the grazing was Rs. 3,405.

The experiment of cutting out bamboo shoots was continued, but apparently without any advantageous results so far. Elsewhere, too, the attempt to limit the spread of bamboos by cutting out the young shoots has failed, and may be given up as a bad job. But we should have liked to hear what, if any, was the effect of the operation, so far.

As regards *natural repoduction.* Mr. G. R. Long, Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge West Salween division, reports generally :—

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"(1). That outside fire-protected areas the natural regenera-
'tion of teak seems more frequent than within areas protected
'from fire, and especially notes that in the Sinswe reserve fire-
'protection is the immediate cause of a dense undergrowth
'through which teak seedlings unassisted by cultural operations
'can never be expected to force their way.

"(2). That in the Mepu and Kyunbinwin forests, just below
'the mouth of the Mekyôn *chaung* on the Bilin I noted a fine crop
'of young teak in the pole stage. As the age was very uniform I
'presume they must date from the last seeding of the ***kyathaung***
'which is there prevalent.

"Mr. Long's last remark agrees with the general experience of
'Forest Officers in Burma and emphasizes the necessity of keep-
'ing a watch for, and taking advantage of, any general flowering
'of bamboos in reserves for extending the planting of teak.

"Mr. H. B. Anthony, Deputy Conservator of Forests, in
'charge of the Thaungyin and Ataran divisions, reports that with
'regard to the Thaungyin—

"In many parts of the fire-protected Meple-Thaungyin
'reserves when the upper canopy is not too dense and where bam-
'boos have not obtained a footing, the natural reproduction of teak
'is plentiful and good, but in the other reserves and open forests it
'is much poorer, the amount of reproduction being in exact pro-
'portion to the amount of protection afforded to the forest.

"In the Thaungyin ranges, where the villages are few in num-
'ber, the forests suffer but little from the inroads of men and cattle,
'and not infrequently tracts of greater of less extent accidently
'escape the annual conflagrations.

"In these forests, therefore, it is not unusual to find teak seed-
'lings and poles here and there, but in the open forests of the
'Hlaingbwe range, which are greatly resorted to by men and
'cattle and through which fire sweeps with unfailing regularity
'every year, natural reproduction of teak is absolutely at a stand-
'still."

"From the above it will be seen how opposed are the facts
'noted, and the inference drawn by Mr. Anthony in the Thaungyin
'and by Mr. Long in the West Salween division, as to the effect of
'fire-protection on the natural regeneration of teak. There is
'little doubt that in many forests in Burma where teak has estab-
'lished itself in the course of years, its natural regeneration at the
'present day seems to be nearly at a standstill, while other forests
'exist where apparently under like conditions natural regenera-
'tion is both plentiful and vigorous. Witness the forests in the
'Toungoo division, where, as noted by the Divisional Officer in the
'report for 1895-96, 'teak grows like a weed, springing up where-
'ever seed falls, both in reserved forests and in areas partially
'under cultivation.' Taking these facts into consideration, it
'seems probable that soil, surroundings and aspect, the reproductive

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'power of the seed, which in certain localities, though continued
'to be borne by the trees in the usual profusion, fails now to either
'germinate or, if germinating, to produce as robust seedlings as it
'did in the years gone by, when the teak first established itself
'on the spot.

"In connection with the above it has to be noted that seed
'sent from Tharrawaddy and planted in the *taungya* plantations
'in the Ataran gave better results and produced healthier and
'more robust seedlings than seed collected either locally or brought
'from the West Salween division.

'With reference to the natural regeneration of species other
'than teak, the Divisional Officer, Thaungyin and Ataran divisions,
'states that—

"Much the same remarks, *i, e.*, as the foregoing, about teak
'apply to *pyingado*, except that in all these forests the young
'growth is more abundant than that of teak.

"*Pyinma*, also, is fairly plentiful in all low-lying grounds, both
'within and outside reserves.

"The natural regeneration of *padauk* is slow in both divisions."

As drift timber, 34,918 logs, were brought down. Foreign teak to the extent of logs 137,889, or 84,478 tons were imported. Right-holders cut 3,750 cubic feet, and free grantees 251,847 cubic feet of teak, besides other timber and minor produce. No revenue was realised from grazing, which was only allowed under settlement rights.

Pegu Circle.—The area of the circle was 1,2391 square miles, of which 2,738 are reserved forest in 8 Divisions. The boundaries of two Divisions were made coterminous with Civil Districts. The duty on firewood entering Thayetmyo from the west was abolished. To prevent the extraction of immatura *pyingado* the minimum girth was fixed at 6 feet 9 inches. The subordinate staff was reorganised. The outturn was 252,356 tons of timber, 18,820,000 bamboos, and 1,056,400 canes. No new areas were finally notified, but 25,040 square miles were proposed.

"*In fire-protection* the operations during the year were as follows :—

	1895-96.	1896-97.
	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles
'Protection attempted	391	494
'Protection successful	337	421
	Rs.	Rs
'Cost per square mile attempted	62	61
'Cost per square mile protected	72	71
	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.
'Failures	53	73
'Of which plantations	2	6-5
'Percentage of protected to attempted	86	85

'The results were not as satisfactory as last year, the chief
'failures being in the Thayetmyo and Tharrawaddy divisions.

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'In Thayetmyo 675 acres of plantations were burnt out of 'a total area of 4,000 acres.

'In Tharrawaddy, also, over 1,000 acres of plantations were 'burnt, out of a total area of some 17,000 acres.

The record is not very promising.

"Out of a total area of 3,109 square miles of reserved forests, '*grazing* is only allowed for the whole year over 5 square miles; 'for part of the year 232 square miles are thrown open to all 'animals.

'The fees obtained for grazing amounted to Rs. 972 for '1,718 head of cattle; 1,720 were grazed free by right-holders."

Natural reproduction we quote as follows:—

"In Thayetmyo division very little natural reproduction of 'teak was observed in the East Yoma reserve, and may be 'attributed to the dense shade of bamboos and partly to the 'leaves having fallen off there. Outside the reserves, in suitable 'spots, it germinated freely.

'In part of the Kyaukletkya reserve numerous young plants 'were observed in a part where the shade was light.

'Cutch regeneration was better in the Sinbaungwè than in 'the Myedè reserve. This is chiefly due to it being much lighter 'forest, although the soil is worse in many parts.

'The former reserves having been protected from fire this 'year, and there having been a plentiful fall of seed where 'there were fair-sized trees, it is expected that during the 'present rains the young plants will be fairly numerous and 'attain a conspicuous size despite the scarcity of seed-bearers 'and the heaviness of the grass growth, both of which facts 'militate against natural reproduction.

'Isolated patches of bamboos seeded, but over no large 'areas nor in reserves.

'In Minhla the bamboo seed was collected and eaten in 'place of rice, so that a fair proportion must have been fer-'tilized there. In most places, however, the seed did not come 'to anything.

Prome division.—Throughout the division the natural repro-'duction of cutch is good wherever there are seed trees about. The 'seeding of teak was not very copious this year, but as usual, 'natural reproduction of these species is fair. Further observa-'tion has only tended to confirm the opinion expressed last year 'namely, that owing to the extra light let in the natural regenera-'tion of teak and cutch is much more plentiful without the fire-'traces than within them.

'The natural reproduction of *pyingado* is good within the 'fire-traced areas wherever light has been let in by the flowering 'of the *myinwa*, or when from other reasons the cover is light.

'As usual the *myinwa* flowered sporadically, but again nearly 'all the seed produced was barren.

'*Tharrawaddy division.*—The remarks in last year's report

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'apply equally to the year now under review; the reproduction 'of cutch is, everywhere that this species occurs, magnificent; 'the reproduction of *pyingado* is very good indeed, but the 'seedlings are miserably small, and there is nothing between 'them and the post stage; poles are entirely absent. In non-'fire-traced forests the reproduction of teak is good, but inside 'fire-traces it is decidedly scanty.

'In paragraph 18 of last year's report of the Tenasserim 'circle the then Conservator of Forests expressed views adverse 'to teak plantations."

The present Conservator holds the same opinion, and would perfer to spend money on improvement fellings rather than on plantations which frequently come to no good, because of fires and the impossibility of sufficient weeding.

"*Bassein Division.*—Owing to annual fires in the Arakan 'Yomas where the more valuable forests of the division are 'situated, consisting of *pyingado* and other large timber trees, 'very little reproduction is taking place, although *pyingado* seeds 'very profusely every year. Nearly the whole area of the 'eastern slopes of these Yomas is overrun by fire year after 'year, so that all the seeds lying on the ground are destroyed, 'and any seedlings which may have sprung up are burnt back 'and killed. The result is that hardly a seedling is to be found on 'the lower slopes, but are only to be met with higher up.

'The only way to overcome this state of things is to take 'up the most valuable *pyingado* tracts and bring them under 'strict forest conservancy.

'In the tidal and lowlying forest, in the south of Myaung-'mya and Bassein districts, where the forests are evergreen, the 'natural reproduction from seeds, shoots, and suckers is all that 'can be desired.

'*Henzada.*—The natural reproduction of teak is poor, small 'trees are scarce, and seedlings are rare. Cutch, on the lower 'slopes of the Yoma, on the other hand, is exceptionally good, but 'the forest urgently requires fire-protection in order to enable 'the young trees to get a fair start. *Pyingado* is fairly plenti-'ful in all the forests away from the villages, and reproduction 'is good.

'The reproduction of teak in the South Myanaung reserve 'and in the proposed Myinwataung reserve is good, but confined 'to the lower slopes. Cutch and *pyingado* are also plentiful 'and reproduction good."

'In the area over which the *myinwa* flowered in 1894 'in the Bawbin and Taungnyo working circles, 36 plots, ag-'gregating 663 acres, were clean felled of all except teak and 'cutch, all rubbish burnt, and then, according to the soil, teak 'and cutch seeds were sown in lines 12 feet apart with 3 feet 'between the plants."

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The area of taungya plantations, during this and previous years, with their cost, is as follows :—

	On 1st July 1896.	Added during the year.	Total.	Cost up to 1895-96.		Cost during 1896-97.		Total.
				Original.	Maintenance.	Original	Maintenance	
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Teak	20,171	2,473	22,644	2,07,228	1,66,944	22,640	18,646	4,15,458
Cutch	203	1,652	1,855	1,895	2,094	16,500	34	20,523
Cutch and Tea ..	5,161	323	5,484	39,463	24,269	2,690	7,847	74,269
Seed	..	..	..	..	..	3,426	.	3,426
Total ..	25,535	4,448	29,983	2,48,586	1,93,307	45,256	26,527	5,13,676

The new area planted is 4,448 acres against 3,350 acres planted last year, and cost Rs. 45,256 or Rs. 10-2-9 per acre.

The weeding cost Re. 1-11-10 per acre.

"The *pyingado* trade has continued to develop during the past 'four years, as will be seen from the following statement :—

	1892-93.	1893-94.	1894-95.	1895-96.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
From reserves ...	350	705	113	940
From unreserved forests	5,894	22,631	35,183	34,926
Total ...	6,244	23,336	35,296	35,866

'The export of teak from Rangoon was 115,854 tons, valued 'at Rs. 98,50,012. Of this 31,788 tons went to Europe, 20,464 'tons to Bengal, 25,903 tons to Bombay, 21,949 tons to Madras 'and the remainder, 15,750 tons to other ports.

'The exports of timber other than teak amounted to 1,142 'tons, valued at Rs. 55,288, and converted timber amounted to '30,283 tons of railway keys, valued at Rs. 1,04,872, and 601,479 'tons of sleepers, valued at Rs. 13,15,884 ; 133,540 cwt. of cutch, 'valued at Rs. 26,31,940; 8,251 cwt. of stick-lac, valued at Rs. '2,11,856 ; and 7,740 gallons of wood-oil, valued at Rs. 4,411 'were also exported.

'The above timber and forest produce are irrespective of the 'forest circle they were extracted from."

The timber outturn of the circle was—teak 36,744 tons, worth Rs. 15,91,696 ; other reserved woods, 3,028 tons, worth

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Rs. 8,183; pyingado 31,180 tons, worth Rs. 1,61,815; other unreserved woods 59,089 tons, worth Rs. 77,613; fuel, 1,22,335 tons, worth Rs. 38,997.

The revenue and expenditure of the year were as follows :—

	Rs.
Revenue	19,53,955
Expenditure	8,23,750
Surplus	11,30,205

The following statement gives the revenue realized per acre from forests in the Tharrawaddy Division, and is of great interest, as the immense value and utility of these forest areas is clearly demonstrated :—

	Area in acres.	Total surplus.	Surplus per acre in 1896-97.	Surplus per annum as estimated in working-plan.
		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Taungnyo working circle	1,09,486	3,52,293 13 2	3 3 6	0 12 4
Bawbin	83,331	3,09,224 7 0	3 11 4	0 12 10
Kangyi	4,896	11,544 8 0	2 5 9	1 13 5
Gamôn	61,773	1,21,797 1 9	1 15 7	0 11 6
Minhla	25,453	12,646 13 0	0 7 11	0 11 10
Môkka	22,406	34,736 8 0	1 8 10	0 4 0
Kadin-Bilin	53,363	1,76,963 11 0	3 5 1	0 6 3
Kôn-Bilin	15,987	25,277 3 0	1 9 4	0 6 8
Thônzè	69,734	76,322 15 0	1 1 6	0 7 8
Reserves for which no working-plan has been drawn up.	24,374	40,593 14 0	1 10 8	...
Total of all reserves	4,70,803	11,31,400 13 11	2 7 6	...

The Bombay-Burma Trading Corporation, Limited, have kindly furnished the following notes :—

"Prices in the Europe market were well maintained throughout the year, cargo timber (square) selling at about £12 to £ 2 10*s.*, whilst the price of Europe planks, ordinary market specifications, advanced from £11 10*s.* to fully £13 10*s.* per ton of 30 cubic feet.

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"Consumption continued at the rate of nearly 70,000 tons 'per annum, so that, in spite of continuously heavy shipments 'from Burma as well as from Siam, there has been no increase in 'the stocks in all the principal distributing centres.

"Combined with an unusually heavy demand for ship-build-'ing, specially naval constructions for the British as well as 'Foreign Governments, there has been an increased demand for 'rolling stock construction resulting in the total consumption 'being considerably in excess of the average of previous years.

"Siam has again contributed nearly 20,000 tons of the 'imports into Europe markets. The floating season, 1896-97, 'has been productive of nearly 60,000 logs against 65,000 in the 'preceding season."

"There has been a satisfactory trade with all the Indian ports 'and Ceylon, the consumption having been large and prices steady, 'the year closing at about Rs 85 to Rs. 90 for selected Indian and 'Rs. 70 to Rs. 80 for the lower Indian classes, an advance fully of 'Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 on the rates ruling a year ago.

'There has been a decrease in the shipments to Indian ports 'from Bangkok, Siam timber corresponding to the Indian classes 'of Burma wood having been largely diverted to China and Japan."

The Conservator appends a useful statement of Forest Rules and notifications issued during the year.

Eastern Circle.—The area is 16,116 square miles, of which 2,610 are reserved, being respectively 27 per cent. and 5 per cent. of the whole district. The Mu Division has been transferred from this to the Western circle, in exchange for the Myingyan Division, as yet containing no reserves. Both the upper Burma circles are as yet far from finally organized. The transfer is again justified by political reasons only, nothing being said as to its advisability from a forest point of view. Final notifications were issued for 531 square miles. There is much work going on in the examination of unknown districts with a view to the selection of forest areas.

In the districts reported on as yet: "the teak forests on the 'lower Mèzè are by far the richest and have been the least worked. 'They are usually situated in the immediate vicinity of the banks 'of the stream, and form narrow belts running parallel to the 'depressions. The common sequence of vegetation in these areas 'is that, first, there occurs a very narrow belt of evergeen forest 'growing on the immediate banks of the streams, then comes the 'zone of the dry deciduous vegetation containing teak, and above 'this, at an elevation of about 2,000 to 2,500 feet, starts the dry, 'evergeen belt, containing such species as *thitsi*, *ingyin* (*Pinus Mer-'kusii*), a few *Pinus Khasya*, and several species of the evergeen 'oaks characteristic of such forests. The dry evergeen type 'extends to an altitude of 4,500 feet, above which it gives place to 'moist evergeen forests which form dense unbroken masses of

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'vegetation along the higher crests and ridges. Valuation surveys 'made in the Mèzè forests show that they are decidedly rich 'in teak, that the age classes are well represented, and that 'exploitation of mature timber has been within the "possibil- 'lity." Such a satisfactory state of things, however, was not 'found to exist in the other teak forests that were examined. 'Those on the Mèzègun in particular were found to be utterly 'ruined by excessive working. The growing stock in these latter 'forests never appears to have been very well constituted, so far as 'the proportions existing between the different age classes is con- 'cerned, and the Shans have made matters infinitely worse by 'having not only removed all the mature marketable timber, but 'most of the second class trees, and even a large portion of the 'third class ones. All this has been done in forests that are 'apparently very poor in natural regeneration.

'The forests on the Hwèpôn and Mènyingsan are similar in 'character to those on the Mèzè, except that they are not so rich in 'teak and have been more worked than those in the former. The 'felling of green teak on a large scale was found to have occurred 'in the Mèzè, Hwèpôn, and Mènyingsan forests. *The Cis-Salween 'forests on the Hwèpôn and Nan Peng* were only hurriedly 'examined on the way to the trans-Salween forests. They had 'already been examined and reported on during 1895-96. The 'forests examined by the Assistant Conservator of Forests are, 'with one exception, situated in the State of Kēngtūng and its. 'dependencies; they included the following:—

'(1) *The forests in the Sub-State of Mōngpu.*—These were the 'richest inspected by him. There may be said to be no teak forests 'east of a line drawn through Takaw and the point where the 'Mèmung enters the Namsing. All the country east of this line is 'well over 2,000 feet high, and is principally covered with pine 'forests. The teak grows up to 2,000 feet elevation, but thrives 'best above 1,200 to 1,500 feet. The teak areas may be divided 'into those along the Salween and those along the Namsing. 'Generally speaking they are mere strips of forest along these two 'principal rivers and their tributaries. Their present condition is 'very poor. From their close proxmity to the Salween and Nam- 'sing, the *Mōngpu* forests have been much overworked, and, except 'in one or two small areas, almost unapproachable and unwork- 'able, no girdling can be done in them by Government for some 'years to come. Except in the abovementioned areas no sound 'marketable trees over 6 feet in girth are left, and in many locali- 'ties no sound tree over 4 feet 6 inches is to be met with, all sound 'trees over this girth having been comparatively recently girdled 'and felled. In most of the localities the original girdled trees 'standing in 1887 were worked out five or more years ago. Many 'large areas are now completely devoid of mature seed-bearers and 'have only poles of 2 and 3 feet girth, which give a very small 'quantity of immature seed. From the valuation surveys taken

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'in these forests, the enormous proportion of stumps under and 'above 6 feet will be seen to often far out-number the green teak 'left on an area. The nearer the floating stream, the worse the 'condition of the forests. It was also found that the illicit girdling 'and felling of green teak has been going on on a large scale in 'these forests."

Linear valuation surveys were made, in several Divisions, covering 1,261 acres, showing ·2 sound first class teak per acre.

Fire-protection is only beginning, for while only 13 per cent. of the reserves are protected, protection was vain in 77 per cent. of this. The cost was Rs. 26-5-11 per square mile, which is considered low. The carelessness of the Railway administration, and of its numerous coolies, causes very serious damage. A contract system of protection exists, fire-watchers being paid a subsistence allowance of Rs. 6 per month, with a monthly bonus at the end of the season, if successful. The opinions of the Conservator and of Divisional Officers are unanimous as to the importance of fire-protection, with regard to the regeneration of teak, pyingado and all other valuable trees. Grazing for 9,120 privileged cattle, 3,891 others and 468 elephants was allowed for part of the year, over 474 square miles, and was valued at Rs. 9,316. Natives of India having taken to cattle grazing, a fee was levied at Rs. 2 per buffalo and Re. 1 per bullock.

Natural reproduction was found so satisfactory that teak taungya operations were abolished in most cases, so as to have funds for improvement fellings and fire-protection, but it is admitted that this policy is not the only one necessary.

Katha division.

"Reproduction in the older pure teak forests of the *Mohnyin reserve* is absolutely *nil* at present. Along the Luckan ridge, however, where teak 'is found mixed with other deciduous trees and with *tinwa* '(*Cephalostachyum pergracile*) bamboo, reproduction is excellent. 'This must be ascribed to the successful fire-protection of the 'last four years. The quantity of young seedlings of one and two 'years old is phenomenal. Two years ago experiments were made 'by cutting away all the culms of the overhanging bamboos to 'try to bring this young growth on. In the small patches of ¼ to ½ 'acre attempted the experiment was a succeess; and this year it 'has been carried out over a much larger area. In June 1897 '166·5 acres were gone over at a cost of Rs. 94, the bamboos 'being felled wholesale wherever there were patches of young teak 'seedings. It is calculated that this area will have to be operated 'over again in September or October after the new bamboo shoots 'have developed. For the next four or five years, probably, the 'area must be cleared of each season's new bamboo shoots, after 'which the teak should be sufficiently advanced to hold its own. 'The results of this experiment on a large scale will be watched 'with great interest, for it will, if successful, partially solve the 'problem of regeneration of teak in bamboo areas throughout

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'many parts of Upper Burma. This area has already been gone 'over for three years in succession, and all new bamboo shoots 'cut with the view of seeing whether the shade of the bamboos 'would be materially lessened. The expected results have not, in 'the Divisional Officer's opinion, been attained. On the other 'side of the Ledan valley three small areas of teak were partial-'ly girdled over in January. The girdling was not completely 'finished till the 15th June, when it was noticed that under the 'girdled trees, and more especially under felled *ficus*-covered 'stems (*nyaungbat*), the ground was carpetted with young teak. 'This forest is also of the mixed deciduous type with *tinwa* bam-'boo undergrowth. A few isolated clumps of *thaikwa* (*Bambusa 'tulda*) were reported to have flowered. In the flowered *thanawa* 'bamboo (*Thyrsostachys Oliveri*) areas of 1894-95 in the *Pilè and* 'Pyinde reserves the reproduction of teak was very sparse.

"Reproduction of teak in the eastern forests of the Shweli is generally poor. On the western side it is, however, much more satisfactory. Parts of 'the reserves show great promise and many very fine areas of young 'teak are to be met with. *Wanwe* bamboo (*Dinochloa Maclellandii*, 'flowered in the *Ondôk reserve* and in the *Nampaw forests* (2½ 'acres of which were sown with teak seed experimentally), while 'tinwa bamboo flowered sporadically in the *Nampaw forests*."

Ruby Mines division.

There appears to be no record of the amount of the unregulated fellings, but Form 57 shows a recorded outturn of over 13 lakhs cubic feet of timber. The Southern Shan States, in the Salween drainage, turned out 11,393 teak logs, or 7,591 tons, valued at Rs. 3,41,730. for which they paid rent Rs. 19,100. As a whole the Southern Shan States paid rent amounting to Rs. 34,483. The outturn of cutch was 14.400 viss, with Rs. 1,510 in the previous year, but *nil* during the year under report. The cessation is accounted for by exhaustion of the State land, and by the cutch-boilers confining themselves to "ancestral lands," but there seems to be a considerable practice of looting cutch in Burma. The rubber trade is also in a bad way, and may still dwindle.

Western Circle.—Two new Divisions, the Mingin and the Magwe were formed, making the total seven. The area is 4,197 square miles of reserves and 16,103 of unclassed forests. The area finally notified was 857 square miles. Valuation surveys were made over 1,505 acres, and showed a result of ·1 sound first class teak per acre.

Fire-conservancy was only attempted in 2 Divisions, in which 291,940 acres were protected, unsuccessfully, except as regards 13 per cent of it.

"Regarding the future of fire-conservancy in this division, 'Mr. Forteath strikes a hopeful note as follows:—

"There is, so far as I have seen, no special difficulty in the 'way of fire-protection in this division, as is proved by the effec-'tive and easy manner in which *taungya*-cutters fire-trace their

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'*yas*. These *yas* are not burnt till May, but the annual fires 'ordinarily begin in March and may be said to finish in early 'April, so that for two months these *yas*, in which a mass of in- 'flamable material is collected, are kept protected from fire.

"The fire-trace is usually simply a line, some 6 to 8 feet 'wide, which is brushed clear of leaves or refuse. Where there 'is grass the terrace is carried round the grass if possible, but '*taungyas* are not usually cut on grassy sites. I hope that con- 'siderations of establishment and more immediately pressing work 'will admit of the fire-protection of the Laung-taung and Kunzè 'reserves being taken in hand soon, as these forests are so un- 'usually valuable and should repay the cost of the work better 'than any other forests in the division.

"During the year the Inspector-General of Forests published 'his views on fire-protection in Burma in a letter to the Revenue 'Secretary, No. 356, dated the 26th April 1897, with reference 'to the discussion which had been going on as to the utility or 'otherwise of keeping out fires. The teak forests of the West- 'ern circle are chiefly of the (*b*) and (*c*) kind of the Inspector- 'General's letter, and the Conservator, during his tour, had 'studied the evil effects of continual burning, and had come to 'precisely the same conclusions as the Inspector-General. He 'therefore heartily welcomed such a document as the most autho- 'ritative and important declaration as regards fire-conservancy 'ever issued in Burma, and he sent a copy to every gazetted 'officer in his circle."

Of the total area of reserved forests (4,197 square miles) an area of 3,854 square miles is closed to grazing the whole year, and 321 square miles are open for a portion of the year; 22 square miles, of which 2 are closed to sheep and goats, are open the whole year.

The whole of the unclassed forests are open to grazing. The total head of cattle admitted to graze is 40 on payment, and 6,182 by right under settlement, free of all dues, for periods varying from 2 to 12 months. The value of this free grazing is estimated at full rates at Rs. 14,402.

The Conservator in his tours came to the conclusion that the natural reproduction of teak is not nearly so bad as it has been described. He found plenty of seedlings in suitable places, on ridges, &c., where they receive sufficient light; but they get burnt down every year and go through the well-known process of sending up a shoot the next season, only to be, in its turn, cut down by the next fire. Meanwhile the root system becomes stronger and eventually a sapling is evolved here and there. No one walking through these forests after the passage of the annual fires would recognize the presence of teak seedlings in the blackened sticks, about one foot high, which cannot be readily distinguished from other species. What these seedlings would become were fires to be excluded and sufficient light admitted by improvement fellings and thinnings must be left to the imagination.

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In the Upper Chindwin, over 25,000dholes (?) were sown in teak *taungya*, and in winter 81 acres with cutch.

The timber outturn was 3,804,394 cubic feet.

The cattle that grazed on payment were 40 buffaloes, but 6,182 were admitted under settlement rights, the value of which is estimated at Rs. 14,402 annually.

The rubber trade is again falling off seriously, only 70 viss having been declared for duty at Kendat, and this, notwithstanding the present enormous demands for rubber. The cutch revenue is also a dwindling quantity, and there is apparently no check on frauds worth mention, as the Conservator states that 2½ lakhs of rupees would have been saved if certain arrangements had been made. The price of cutch has fallen from Rs. 50 to Rs. 32 for the best class, partly owing to last year's over-production (10,000 tons from this circle alone), and partly to the advent of new materials. An attempt was made to introduce the use of planes or spoke-shaves for cutting up the wood, but it was found that the new plan was unacceptable, involving departures from the usual routine without any corresponding advantage. It was necessary to allow two or even there evaporators, in place of one under the chip method, as a pot full of shavings will hold more water than a pot full of chips. This is due to the fact that chips are more easily packed, and when packed, remain in the pot jammed to gether. When the first part of the process was completed (th- preliminary boiling of the chips in the pots) it was foune that the quantity of water in the pots was more than the evaporator (*yeni-o*) would hold, *i. e.*, 4 gallons, and the contents of some 10 or 12 pots had to be reserved for the next filling. By allowing two evaporators the whole 30 pots could be employed. The method, however, is unpopular, and the shavings cut are so coarse (there being no guides to the spoke-shaves) that they are little finer than the chips cut by a clever chipper.

The Conservator inspected this experiment on his tour, and there is no doubt the use of spoke-shaves is not popular, nor is it, in his opinion, of great importance.

The price paid per cauldron at the annual auctions is shown as follows :—

	Number of cauldrons sold.	Rs.
Minbu	... 40	17,310
Yaw	... 140	51,205
Mu	... 54	5,780
Lower Chindwin	... 68	14,710
Myittha	... 36	5,406
Total	... 338	94,411

or an average of Rs. 279 per cauldron as compared with Rs. 304 in the previous year. The average per cauldron in the Yaw division was high, about Rs. 365, but owing to the sudden drop in price, the buyers lost heavily.

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The financial results of the year were—

					Rs.
Revenue	...	...	...	..	6 04,076
Expenditure	...	...	...	...	2,58,162
			Surplus	...	3,45,914

V—SHIKAR AND TRAVEL.

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

Artificial Indin Rubber.

One of the most recent important events in the history of chemistry was the discovery by an English professor that a substance corresponding in every respect to India rubber may be produced from oil of turpentine.

Dr. W. A. Tilden, Professor of Chemistry, in Mason College, Birmingham, began a series of experiments with a liquid hydrocarbon substance, known to chemists as isoprene, which was primarily discovered and named by Greville Williams, a well-known English chemist, some years ago, as a product of the destructive distillation of India rubber. In 1884, says *The New York Sun*, Dr. Tilden discovered that an identical substance was among the more volatile compounds obtained by the action of moderate heat upon oil of turpentine and other vegetable oils, such as rape-seed oil, linseed oil and castor oil.

Isoprene is a very volatile liquid, boiling at a temperature of about 36 degrees Fahrenheit. Chemical analysis shows it to be composed of carbon and hydrogen in the proportions of five to eight.

In the course of his experiments Dr. Tilden found that when isoprene is brought into contact with strong acids, such as aqueous hydrochloric acid, for example, it is converted into a tough elastic solid, which is, to all appearances, true India rubber.

Specimens of isoprene were made from several vegetable oils in the course of Dr. Tilden's work on those compounds. He preserved several of them and stowed the bottles containing them away upon an unused shelf in his laboratory.

After some months had elapsed he was surprised at finding the contents of the bottles containing the substance derived from the turpentine entirely changed in appearance. In place of a limpid, colourless liquid, the bottles contained a dense syrup, in

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which were floating several large masses of a solid yellowish colour ; upon examination this turned out to be India rubber.

This is the first instance on record of the spontaneous change of isoprene into India rubber. According to the Doctor's hypothesis, this spontaneous change can only be accounted for by supposing that a small quantity of acetic or formic acid had been produced by the oxidizing action of the air, and that the presence of this compound had been the means of transforming the rest.

Upon inserting the ordinary chemical test paper, the liquid was found to be slightly acid. It yielded a small portion of unchanged isoprene.

The artificial India rubber found floating in the liquid, upon analysis showed all the constituents of natural rubber. Like the latter, it consisted of two substances, one of which was more soluable in benzine or in carbon bisulphine than the other. A solution of the artificial rubber in benzine left, on evaportion, a residue which agreed in all characteristics with the residuum of the best Para rubber similarly dissolved and evaporated.

The artificial rubber was found to unite with natural rubber in the same way as two pieces of ordinary pure rubber, forming a a tough, elaslic compound.

Although the discovery is very interesting from a chemical point of view, it has not as yet any commercial importance It is from such beginnings as these, however, that cheap chemical substitues for many natural products have been developed. Few persons outside of those directly connected with rubber industries realize the vast quantities imported yearly into this country. Last year there were brought into United States ports, as shown by the reports of the customs officers, no less than 34,348,000 pounds of India rubber. The industry has been steadily progressive since the invention of machinery for manufacturing it into the various articles of everyday use. The wonderful growth of the India rubber interest in this country will be seen from the statistics compiled in the tenth census.

In 1870 there were imported 5,122,000 pounds at an average rate of $1 per pound, in 1880 the imports were 17,835,000 pounds at an average price of 85 cents per pound, in 1890 31,949,000 pounds were imported at an average price of 75 cents per pound.

The present price of India rubber varies from 75 cents per pound for fine Para rubber to 45 cents per pound for the cheapest grade.

It will be seem that, notwithstanding the increase in importations, the price of the raw material remains at a comparatively high figure. Many experiments have been made to find a substance possessing the same properties as India rubber, but which could be produced at a cheaper rate.

Many of the compositions which have been invented have been well adapted for use for certain purposes, and have been used to

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adulterate the pure rubber, but no substance has been produced which could even approach India rubber in several of its important characteristics. There has never been a substance yet recommended as a substitute for rubber which possessed the extraordinary elasticity which makes it indispensable in the manufacture of so many articles of common use.

Great hopes were at one time placed in a product prepared from linseed oil. It was found that a material could be produced from it which would, to a certain, extent, equal India rubber compositions in elasticity and toughness.

It was argued that linseed oil varnish, when correctly prepared, should be clear and dry in a few hours into a transparent, glossy mass of great tenacity. By changing the mode of preparing linseed oil varnish, in so far as to boil the oil until it became a very thick fluid and spun threads, when it was taken from the boiler, a mass was obtained which, in drying, assumed a character resembling that of glue.

Resin was added to the mass while hot, in a quantity depending upon the product designed to be made, and requiring a greater or less degree of elasticity.

Many other recipes have been advocated at different times to make a product resembling caoutchouc out of linseed oil in combination with other substances, but all have failed to give satisfaction, save as an adulterant to pure rubber.

Among the best compounds in use in rubber factories at present is one made by boiling linseed oil to the consistency of thick glue. Unbleached shellac and a small quantity of lampblack is then stirred in. The mass is boiled and stirred until thoroughly mixed. It is then placed in flat vessels exposed to the air to congeal.

When still warm the blocks formed in the flat vessels are passed between rollers to mix it as closely as possible. This compound was asserted by its inventor to be a perfect sustitute for caoutchouc.

It was also stated that it could be vulcanized. This was found to be an error, however. The compound, upon the addition of from 15 to 25 per cent. of pure rubber, may be vulcanized and used as a substitute for vulcanized rubber.

Compounds of coal tar, asphalt, &c., with caoutchouc have been frequently tested, but they can only be used for very inferior goods.

The need for a substitute for gutta percha is even more acute than for artificial India rubber. A compound used in its stead for many purposes is known as French gutta percha. This possesses nearly all the properties of gutta percha.

It may be frequently used for the same purposes and has the advantage of not cracking when exposed to the air.

Its inventors claimed that it was a perfect substitute for India rubber and gutta percha, fully as elastic and tough, and

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not susceptible to injury from great pressure or high temperature.

The composition of this ambitious substance is as follows :— One part, by weight, of equal parts of wood tar oil and coal tar oil, or of the latter alone, is heated for several hours at a temperature of from 252 to 270 degrees Fahrenheit, with two parts, by weight, of hemp oil, until the mass can be drawn into thread. Then one-half part, by weight, of linseed oil, thickened by boiling, is added. To each 100 parts of the compound, one-twentieth to one-tenth part of ozokerite and the same quantity of spermaceti are added.

The entire mixture is then again heated to 252 degrees Fahrenheit and one-fifteenth to one-twelfth part of sulphur is added. The substance thus obtained, upon cooling, is worked up in a similar manner to natural India rubber. It has not been succesfully used, however, without the addition of a quantity of pure rubber to give it the requisite elasticity.

A substitute for gutta percha is obtained by boiling the bark of the birch tree, especially the outer part, in water, over an open fire. This produces a black fluid mass, which quickly becomes solid and compact upon exposure to air.

Each gutta percha and India rubber factory has a formula of it own for making up substances as nearly identical with the natural product as possible, which are used to adulterate the rubber and gutta percha used in the factory. No one has as yet, however, succeeded in discovering a perfect substitute for either rubber or gutta percha.

The history of chemistry contains many instances where natural products have been supplanted by artificial compounds possessing the same properties and characteristics. One of the most notable of those is the substance known as alizarine, the colouring matter extracted from the madder root. This, like India rubber, is a hydrocarbon.

Prior to 1869 all calico-printing was done with the colouring matter derived from the madder root, and its cultivation was a leading industry in the eastern and southern portions of Europe.

In 1869 alizarine was successfully produced from the refuse coal tar of gas works and the calico-printing business was revolutionized.

The essence of vanilla, made from the vanilla bean, and used as a flavouring extract, has been supplanted by the substance christened vanilla by chemists, which possesses the same characteristics and is made from sawdust.

Isoprene, from which Dr. Tilden produced India rubber, is comparatively a new product, as derived from oil of turpentine.

It yet remains to be seen whether rubber can be synthetically produced certainly and cheaply. The results of further experiments will be awaited with interest, as the production of artificial rubber at moderate cost would be an event of enormous importance.

—(*Scientific American.*(

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The Larch.

By W. R. Fisher.

It is extremely important to encourage the cultivation of larch in Britain, owing to the excellent quality of its timber and the rapidity with which it grows, but planters have of late been discouraged by the prevalence of the fatal larch-canker. In the present paper, therefore, a description will *first* be given of the conditions for a vigorous growth of larch in its native forests, and, *secondly*, an attempt will be made to explain how the knowledge of these conditions may be applied to its cultivation in Britain, so as to secure for it, as far as possible, immunity from disease. For the former, * "Gayer's Treatise on Sylviculture," by the eminent Professor of Forestry at Munich, and the †*Flore Forestière*, by A. Mathieu, late Professor of Natural History at Nancy, have been consulted, and for the latter, the writer has been chiefly guided by ‡"Michie's "Treatise on the Larch," and by his own personal experience in English and Welsh woodlands.

(*a*). Geographical Distribution.

The true home of the larch is restricted to the Alps, the Carpathians, and a few parts of the mountainous region of North Moravia. Here—but especially in the central chain of the Alps, more on their southern than on their northern slopes and to the east of the Bavarian Alps—the larch forms nearly pure woods and produces the finest timber. In such places the larch spreads as naturally as the oak in Sussex, and if any meadows near the larch-woods are not regularly mown, young seedlings of larch spring up everywhere in them. Under the mature larch an excellent crop of grass is produced, sufficient on about 2½ acres of woodland to feed a small Alpine cow during the summer, the grazing being as valuable as the wood.

In most other Alpine regions, spruce, beech, Cembran pine or silver fir are mixed with larch in larger or smaller proportions, but it is rare to find the larch completely absent, except in certain districts of the Alps, on limestone rock. There are also splendid crops of larch in upper Silesia and in the district of Glatz. With the spruce and Cembran pine the larch ascends in altitude to 7,500 feet, the limit of tree vegetation, but does not extend nearly so far north as the spruce, and clearly, demands a greater supply of heat than the latter tree. On the northern declivity of the Alps the larch descends to the valleys, but not below 3,500 feet on their southern slopes. It thrives better in the lower portion of its zone than above 4,000 feet. Wilkomm—the first investigator of the

* Der Waldbau von Dr. Karl Gayer. 3rd edition, Berlin, 1889.

† "Flore Forestière," par A. Mathieu, 3rd edition, revised by P. Flicne, Paris, 1897.

‡ Published by Blackwood & Co, 1885.

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larch-canker, named after him *Dasyscypha* (*Peziza*) *Wilkommii*—states that the amount of heat required by the larch corresponds to a mean annual temperature between 30° and 46° Fah.

A very short spring, a uniformly and moderately warm summer, and a long winter's rest, which should last at least four months, and during which the larch appears to be quite indifferent to extreme cold, are apparently required. The larch is extremely resistent to heavy snowfall, being leafless in winter, and its branches are strongly joined to the stem and highly elastic, so that the wind readily shakes off any snow which may rest on them. Although in its native forests the larch can withstand strong winds, yet it grows best in sheltered valleys and ravines. It is therefore clear—and Gayer insists strongly on this fact—that the larch does not require dry breezy situations, but prefers damp air, although this to a certain extent favours the canker. Hence, in the *high mountains*, it avoids northerly and north-easterly aspects, when these are exposed to dry continental gales.

(*b*) Soil Requirements.

The larch is not particular as to the mineral character of the soil, provided the latter is sufficiently friable, moist, but well drained and deep. It resembles the Scotch pine in preferring deep soil, and though on rocky ground its roots spread far in search of clefts, through which they may pass down into the sub-soil, yet it never succeeds on very shallow soil. The larch also requires the soil to be sufficiently loose for its roots to penetrate to some depth, but not so loose as to become easily dried up in hot summers; it never thrives on gravels, which drain the soil of its moisture. The best larch trees in the Alps occur in localities where the surface of the ground is strewn with blocks of stone and boulders, between which the roots can penetrate and obtain plenty of moisture and mineral matter, as in the ravines and bases of slopes in the Engadine. The larch requires less moisture in the soil than the spruce, but more than the Scotch pine; it prefers soils which remain fairly moist throughout the year, and can withstand excess of moisture in the ground better than a scarcity of it.

The annual shedding of the larch needles supplies the soil richly with humus, and it is probably due to this fact that the tree will grow on soils which are comparatively poor in mineral nutriment. Frank* has shown that conifers have a symbiotic growth with certain fungi which cover their roots and thus enable them to obtain nitrogenous compounds from the air contained in the soil, another reason why very compact soils do not produce good trees. This symbiotic growth is possible only in soils containing sufficient humus, in which trees have two kinds of roots, the larger ones penetrating into clefts of the

* Ber. d. deutsch. botan. Ges. 1892, p. 583.

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rocks and into the sub-soil, and obtaining water and mineral matter by means of root-hairs, and also affording stability to the tree against storms, while the rootlets in the humus layer, which may be termed surface-feeders, afford the nitrogenous and other nourishment so important for vigorous growth, and which is taken up by the fungus around them.

As regards its demands on mineral matter in soils, the larch is more exacting than the spruce or Scotch pine, and thrives better on loams or marls, than on poor sands and calcareous soils. Doubtless the preference for a little clay in the soil is due to the fact that clay retains moisture; a richness in humus is always a good substitute for clay in this respect.

(*c*) Light Requirements.

No tree requires more light than larch, which thus resembles the birch. Its rapid upward growth soon enables it to get its head free from surrounding vegetation, and it cannot withstand overcrowding, either of its crown or its roots. In the Alps, the mature larch are grown with their crowns absolutely free from neigh ouring trees, for, when crowded, their crowns are small and confined to the top of the trees, and their boles are merely slender poles. The larch, like the spruce, preserves its leading shoot for a long period, and under favourable circumstances, attains a height of over 100 feet, and Mathieu cites cases of a larch tree 160 feet high in Canton Valais, and another 175 feet in Silesia.

(*d*) External Dangers.

Although a few beetles (*Hylobius notatus, Tomicus typographus* and *T. laricis*) attack the cambium of the larch, yet, in its native region, they do not effect any serious damage, but certain lepidopterous larvæ, such as those of *Tortrix pinicolana* and the leaf-miner, *Coleophora laricella*, destroy the needles, and so do certain sawflies, *Nematus laricis* and *N. Erichsoni*, whilst the larch-aphis (*Chermes laricis*), covered with a white woolly down, which makes affected larch trees appear as if sprinkled with snow, eats the needles in the middle, giving them a peculiar elbowed appearance. None of these insects, however, are so dangerous to the larch as when it is cultivated outside its mountain home. As already stated, larch is not liable to serious damage by snow nor by rime-frost, whilst owing to the fact that the roots of the trees are kept cold by the snow till May and that the warm weather then comes on rapidly, the buds form their foliage late and rapidly and are seldom endangered by spring frosts. Owing to its rapid growth when young, and its power of reforming an injured leader, the larch speedily recovers from injuries by game or cattle, especially as the former are not plentiful in the Alps.

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The larch, in its mountain home, is a fairly storm-firm tree, though, as already stated, it prefers sheltered positions to those exposed to cutting dry winds. Even the destructive canker is not often fatal to it in the Alps, as this fungus generally forms fertile spores only in low damp situations near the lakes, or on low branches of saplings, smothered by a dense growth of herbage. The fact that the fertile spores can infect the trees only through wounds also renders the disease rare in the Alps, as wounds are rare, and the larch in its native home is in a thoroughly healthy condition.

(*e*) Quality of Timber.

Mountain grown larch affords one of the strongest and most durable of European timbers. It is formed of narrow-zoned alternate layers of softer spring-wood and harder summer-wood, is saturated with resin and very tough and elastic. The sapwood, composed of 5 to 20 zones, is rarely more than half an inch wide, especially in old trees, which increase very slowly in diameter, whilst the heartwood is reddish-brown with alternating zones of lighter coloured spring-wood and darker summer-wood, and contains numerous large resin canals. Its specific gravity may be as high as 0·83, corresponding to a weight of 52 lbs. per cubic foot. Mountain larch-wood is fully equal in strength and durability to the best oakwood, and is also split into staves and roofing shingles.

II. The Larch when Cultivated in Britain.

Owing to the preference of the larch for damp air, it thrives in the insular climate of Britain much better than in the drier atmosphere of North Germany, this preference for damp air being clearly shewn by the occurrence of fine larch near the sea-coast in Oldenburg. The West of France, on the other hand, is too warm for larch, which grows there rapidly enough in its youth, but soon falls off in vigour, while its timber only weighs about half as much as good mountain larchwood.

Michie states that larch thrives better in the North than in the South of Scotland, the reverse being the case for England, but the reason he assigns for this is incorrect, as he says that the soil is drier and the atmosphere contains less moisture in the North of Scotland and in the South of England than in the intermediate region. One of the finest Welsh larchwoods the writer has ever seen is in Lord Powis' estate, near Lake Vyrnwy, and here the rainfall is 60 inches, and the atmosphere generally very moist, the soil being a deep moist loam. Michie himself refers to the excellent growth of larch in the North of Ireland, where the atmosphere is surely damper than in the North of England. Any one who may doubt whether a moist atmosphere and damp soil suit the larch should visit the neighbourhood of Virginia Water and Windsor Forest, where some of the finest mature larch trees

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in Britain may be seen, and several healthy young larch plantations, whilst other plantations on shallow soil and dry aspects are ruined by the canker. In Britain, the successful cultivation of larch depends more on a suitable choice of soil and aspect and on proper treatment than on the state of the atmosphere, which in the British Isles is always moist enough for the production of fertile spores of the fungus. In fact, according to Webster, larch-canker first appeared in the drier and more easterly parts of England, and is rare in Ireland, in spite of its very moist atmosphere. When larch is planted in localities where spring frosts are severe, where the foliage comes out early, or where owing to a soil too compact, loose, or shallow, or too dry an aspect, its growth is languishing, or where it is injured by game or insects, or the crop is too crowded and the trees have insufficient room for their crowns or roots, it is always liable to disease.

The canker, according to Michie, attacks only parts of trees under 15 years old, so that in a tree growing 18 inches a year and 22½ feet high when 15 years old, the lowest 18 inches is proof against disease, and every year an additional 18 inches is safe. Hence, when the tree is 30 years old and 45 feet high, the lower 22½ feet is disease-proof. The canker is also much less hurtful on the crown and branches of trees over 20 feet in height than on younger trees, and the crowns of older trees are less liable to infection than the bases of saplings.

Excellent larch timber is produced in Britain, and the tops of the trees may be used as posts and rails, which last four times as long as those of Scotch pine. On the Tay and elsewhere, it is extensively used for ship-building, and for rural purposes it is admirably adapted for all outdoor fabrics exposed to wind and weather. It is therefore not surprising that many millions of larch trees have been planted in the British Isles, and although its cultivation has of late been checked by the ravages of the canker, there is no doubt that attention to the conditions for growing healthy larch will enable landowners still to plant it on a large scale.

A fairly complete account of the fungus causing larch-canker is given by the present writer in Vol. 4 of "Schlich's Manual of Forestry;" but, in 1895, when the book was published, he was not aware that it is not always correct to follow Hartig's advice and restrict larch plantations to breezy hill-sides, as the fungus can produce fertile spores anywhere in Britain. Colonel Pearson, formerly Conservator of Forests in India, who now resides at Kingston-Downton, in Herefordshire, near some extensive larch plantations, was the first, as far as the writer knows, to observe that larch is freest from canker when grown on northerly aspects, and the present writer has seen perfectly healthy crops of larch on northerly slopes bordering Lake Vyrnwy, in Wales, whilst on the other side of the same hills, facing the south and west, the

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larch plantations are completely ruined by canker. There is a plantation of larch on a deep moist loamy soil, on the northern slope of Coopers Hill, the trees being nine years old and already over 20 feet in height and absolutely free from canker, whilst on the flat land on the Bagshot sands, in an estate only two miles off, the larch suffers greatly from canker, although on northerly aspects in the same estate quite healthy and vigorous larch trees are growing. A damper situation cannot well be found than that of the Coopers Hill plantation, facing, as it does, the Thames Valley and frequently enveloped in fog, whilst the sun's rays hardly reach it, owing to the northerly exposure. The reason for the vigorous growth of larch there, and on northern aspects generally, seems to be that the soil remains moist throughout the year, whilst the slope prevents the moisture from stagnating in the soil and rendering it sour. The feet of the trees are also kept cool in the spring, and thus they are restrained from early sprouting and consequent damage by spring frosts. On southerly and westerly aspects, on the contrary, the hill-sides are dried by the sun's rays, and the plants are tormented by the strong south-westerly gales; their growth is thus rendered poor, and they are injured by the wind and by spring frost, which does more damage by rapid thaw on warm aspects than by the actual cold produced.

Michie cites many fine larch trees growing at Dunkeld and other places in Scotland on northerly aspects, and says that the north side of a hill is best adapted to grow larch to age and large dimensions, while on the south it grows more readily when newly planted and comes sooner to maturity. The writer's experience in Wales, however, leads him to recommend the avoidance of all southerly aspects for larch, and de Candolle, when applied to in 1833, by the Editor of the *Quarterly Journal of Agriculture*, stated that in Switzerland, in valleys parallel to the equator, all the side facing north is frequently covered with larch, while there are none at all to the south.

This is no contradiction to the statement already made that larch grows best on southerly aspects in the Alps, for it is a general fact, noted in "Schlich's Manual of Forestry," Vol. I, p. 114, that trees which on high mountains grow best on southerly aspects come round to northerly aspects lower down.

Michie says that poor superficial soil over a hard substratum gives rise to root-rot in larch, which is termed *pumping*, and experience in the Windsor Forest shows that this disease always arises there, when larch is grown over gravel or iron-pan. In fact, gravelly sub-soil dries up the surface too much for this tree, besides being frequently impervious to its roots, and the same may be said of layers of flints above chalk when covered with only a thin layer of loam. According to both Michie and Webster, larch thrives on well-drained peat when not too compact;

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but the former states that when peat-land has been for some time used as arable land and is then planted with larch, the trees become *pumped*.

Larch cannot stand exposure to strong westerly and south-westerly gales, and when so exposed the trees either lose their leaders or become bent like a sabre at the foot, while the crown bends away from the wind direction. Such trees, however, have a special value in Scotland as curved wood for building herring boats. The writer has seen all the trees in a larch plantation bent out of the vertical by the west wind. This plantation was on level ground which had been deeply trenched all over; but in a neighbouring plantation, where the larch had been pitted, the trees were vertical, having a stronger foothold.

From a consideration of the above remarks it appears that larch should not be planted in frost-holes, nor in localities exposed to strong gales. Soils should be selected which are sufficiently deep, moist and friable, to afford a vigorous growth. The plants used should be small and sturdy with well-formed roots, two-year-olds being most suitable, and they are better when taken from a home-nursery than when exposed to the risks of a long journey before planting; the idea, sometimes prevalent, that larch plants purchased from a nursery in the North of Britain are hardier than home-grown plants, is contrary to the writer's experience in the South of England. It appears from Michie's researches that good Scotch seed, or good seed from Switzerland and the Tyrol, gives equally good plants; the latter are, however, said to sprout earlier and consequently to be more tender during the first two years than plants raised from Scotch seed.

The plants should be pitted at distances of five feet apart, and it is probably better to plant pure larch, but beech and larch form a good mixture, and near Cooper's Hill, sweet chestnut and larch is a common crop, though these species would certainly thrive better apart, the chestnut suffering from overcrowding when young and the larch when over 30 years old. Michie says that mixing larch with other conifers in even-aged woods is prejudicial to the former tree.

Early, frequent and moderate thinnings should be carried out, only dead and suppressed stems being removed until the wood is 30 to 40 years old and grass appears under the trees. The dominant trees should then be isolated by the removal of all interior and cankered stems, and the wood under-planted with beech, silver-fir, or Weymouth pine, which will shelter the soil and keep up the necessary supply of humus. The writer cannot say whether the Alpine custom of combining pasture with larch cultivation by leaving the trees isolated and grazing down the grass, can be followed in Britain without too much deterioration of the soil. Michie says that the Athole larch forests are depastured by sheep, and that most of the soil is too wet for cattle, which leave foot-prints for water to stand in and injure the roots of the trees.

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The above plan for growing larch trees should be followed if large timber is required, the trees being preserved until they have attained the desired dimensions, when either the underwood may be cut and natural regeneration of the larch obtained, or the whole crop felled and replanted with larch. In case only poles are required for pit-timber, or for posts or rails, there would generally be no object in under-planting; but the larch should be carried on to the age of 50 years, by successively thinning out suppressed trees, and then felled and replanted.

When larch is grown for hop-poles, as in Kent and Sussex, closer planting should be adopted from 18 inches by 18 inches, to 3 feet by 3 feet, according to the size of poles required. The whole crop may then be felled when about 15 to 20 years old, or half the trees felled when suitable for smaller poles, and the rest later on.

Outside its natural zone, larch suffers considerably from hares, rabbits and deer, and game must be kept down in larch-woods, or wire fences used until the trees are out of danger.

It will be seen that the writer advocates larch plantations in Britain only in localities thoroughly suited for the tree, and that they should be carefully treated and protected from damage; and though grown sufficiently close in their youth to afford tall and clean stems, that the older trees should be allowed plenty of room for crown and root expansion, and the soil protected from drying-up and impoverishment, by under-planting with shade-bearing trees.—*Land Magazine.*

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

April 4th, 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK. The deliveries for the first quarter of the year amount to 6,145 loads, against 5,088 loads for the same quarter of 1897. For March with 888 loads only, there is a falling-off in comparison with the 1,166 loads of March 1897. There has been no change in the quotations of the London market so far, but demand for floating cargoes has again been very active, and at an increasing cost. The political necessities of Europe are one cause of this activity, but it is based still more on the prospects of a short supply of the woods in Burmah and Siam on account of recent difficulties in flotation.

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ROSEWOOD. EAST INDIA. The small lots lately landed sold well, as there is a good, although not large, demand.

SATINWOOD. EAST INDIA. Is of slow sale, and stocks ample.

EBONY. EAST INDIA. Small wood is only saleable at low rates, and only large, sound logs should be shipped.

PRICE CURRENT

Indian Teak	per load	£9	to	£14
Rosewood	ton	£9	to	£10
Satinwood	s. ft.	5d.	to	12d.
Ebony	ton	£7	to	£8

MARKET RATES FOR PRODUCTS.

Tropical Agriculturist, April 1898.

Cardamoms	per lb.	3s. 6d.	to	4s.
Croton Seeds	,, cwt.	50s.	to	60s.
Cutch	,, ,,	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic, Madras	,, ,,	27s. 6d.	to	35s.
,, Kino	,, ,,	12s. 6d.	to	15s.
India rubber, Assam	,, lb.	2s. 4d.	to	2s. 11½d.
,, Burma	,, ,,	2s. 3d.	to	2s. 11d.
Myrabolams, Madras	,, cwt.	4s. 6d.	to	6s.
,, Bombay	,, ,,	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
,, Jubbulpore	,, ,,	4s.	to	7s.
,, Calcutta	,, ,,	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	,, ,,	7s.	to	7s. 6d.
Oil, Lemon Grass	,, lb.	5d.		...
Sandalwood, Logs	,, ton.	£30	to	£50.
,, Chips	,, ,,	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood	,, ,,	£4	to	£5.
Seed lac	,, cwt.	70s.	to	80s.
Tamarinds	,, ,,	4s.	to	6s.

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VOL. XXIV] [No. 6.

THE

INDIAN FORESTER

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL

EDITED BY

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THE
INDIAN FORESTER.

Vol. XXIV.] June, 1898. [No. 6.

Conversion of a Sissu Forest into a Mulberry Forest through the Agency of birds.

The following note is an illustration of the important part played by birds in scattering seed, and of the way in which a forest of one species may be converted into a forest of a totally different species through their agency.

The particular bird I refer to is the rose coloured starling (*Pastor roseus*) or commonly known as the "Tillyer" in vernacular.

During the season of the ripening of the Mulberry fruit, end of March to end of April, these birds literally swarm in the Changa Manga Plantation, and can be seen in the early morning flying in dense flocks, sometimes in such numbers that the sky is darkened overhead and there is the sound of a strong wind blowing as they fly by.

These birds come to the plantation simply to feast on the mulberries, and leave again as soon as the fruit is over. Where they come from and where they disappear to, I do not know.

They settle on the tops of the trees in such numbers and so closely together, that the tree-tops look black with them.

It is undoubtedly these birds who spread the mulberry seed, and being in such large numbers, it is not difficult to understand how very large areas are sown up with seed in their droppings.

One day I happened to notice the birds particularly, sitting in swarms on the tops of the sissu standards in the area just felled on the coppice with standard system. The tree-tops were black with birds and they made a deafening noise. Before long they rose and settled a little further off and so they continued doing until the whole regeneration area must have been visited by them.

This sight was sufficient to explain, how it is that instead of getting the felled areas regenerated with sissu coppice, they are chiefly covered with a dense growth of mulberry.

The Changa Manga Plantation was originally practically pure sissu. It has just completed its first rotation, and the standing

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crop instead of being pure sissu coppice, is more than half mulberry, some compartments with the exception of the sissu standards being pure mulberry.

The first coupe of the second rotation has just been felled and it was on the standards in this area that I noticed the birds in such swarms as just mentioned. and there is little doubt that the whole regeneration area has been sown with mulberry seed in the birds' droppings. Mulberry being a faster grower than sissu and a shade-bearer, the latter species has no chance against it and unless assisted artificially there is little doubt that the entire standing crop, with exception of the sissu standards, at the end of the second rotation will be pure mulberry if the two species are left to themselves, and this result will have been brought about almost entirely through the agency of these "Tillyers."

I may add however that it is is not intended to let the mulberry have all its own way, but sissu, as the more valuable species, will be assisted by cutting back and keeping the mulberry below it.

Provided the factors of locality are suitable, the method of treatment of these two species is undoubtedly two-storied high forest. It is not intended however to go into any sylvicultural questions beyond showing the part played by the "Tillyers" in introducing mulberry.

I enclose a photograph which I am afraid is rather poor but was taken under difficulties. It shows the Tillyers in fairly dense masses on one tree a little to the left of the centre of the photograph.

There are also a few birds away to the right. Unfortunately most of the birds flew away before I could expose the plate. The locality is a portion of coupe 1, just felled over, and the birds are on the standard trees.

B. O. C.

15th May 1897.

Note.—The photograph shows the birds excellently, but we regret that it is not quite suitable for reproduction.

Hon. Ed.

Death of M. Demontzey.

The French Forest Service has recently lost one of its most distinguished leaders, in the person of Gabriel Lewis Prosper Demontzey, a man whose name is remembered with reverence and esteem even in the distant plains of India.

He was born at Saint-Dié in 1831, of an ancient and honorable family which, before the Revolution, called itself de Montzey.

At the schools of St. Dié and Strasburg he was the contemporary and constant friend of the brilliant politician of later years,

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Jules Ferry. During the agitated years 1848 to 1850, he was studying in Paris, and could not fail to be impressed by the wild enthusiasms and sentiment which at that time were boiling over in Paris. In 1850, at the earliest age allowed, he entered the Ecole Forestière as a member of the 27th Promotion. His constitution was so happily organised that he could both work hard and play hard and he did both with an energy and success that made him a brilliant success in all societies. On leaving the Ecole Forestière he had the good fortune to be posted to St. Dié, but excited by the Algerian stories of an old colleague, he applied for and obtained his transfer to Algiers. Here, he found the opportunies he required. and threw himself into his work in a new and wild country with the keenest ardour and indefatigable zeal. The officers of the garrison gave him as a term of endearment the nickname *Quercus Robur*. By 1865 he had made a name and was appointed head of a Commission de Reboisement. His plantations in Algeria were followed by his famous reboisements in the Alps, works which still excite the admiration of every forester who has the good fortune to visit them. In the district of Barcelonette alone, he put an end to the devastations of eight formidable torrents, and so to speak, made excellent citizens of eight of the most dangerous members of society. This went on till 1877, when his work was rewarded by a Conservatorship at the early age of 45 years. Though now busied with many things he still watched over and encouraged those who were engaged in his favourite work, and during this period directed the work against the most formidable torrent of all. His success procured him in 1880 the Legion of Honour and his election to the Academie des Sciences. At the age of 51 he was appointed Inspector-General in charge of works of restoration. This did not close his career, on the contrary, he regarded it but as a wider opening for his talents, and issued a number of circulars and instructions tending to spread wider the means which he had used to such effect. In 1884 he began the famous works for controlling the dangerous Combe de Péguére, which threatened to demolish the sanitarium of Cauterets, and he further extended his operations in Savoy. In 1893, at the age of 62, of which 43 were active service he retired with an extraordinary honorary title. In addition to many minor works, he published two which are still, and will remain, beacons in Forest literature, viz his "*Etude sur les travaux de reboisement et de gazonnement des montagnes.*" and his "*L'extinction des torrents en France par le reboisement.*" The first is a classic text book for the use and information of workers, the second a report of results achieved, with statistics and details complete. He died on February 28th, 1898.

(Abridged from the "*Revue des Eaux and Forêts.*")

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A Longicorn Beetle which attacks Mulberry Trees.

The Shahdera Reserve, a "Sailaba" plantation on the banks of the Ravi about five miles from Lahore is literally infested with this beetle, as evidenced by the number of attacked trees. The plantation consists of about equal parts of Shisham (*Dalbergia Sissoo*) and Mulberry (*Morus indica*) with a few trees of *Acacia arabica* and *A. modesta*. Of these only mulberry is attacked, its wood being fairly soft. Both small and large trees are attacked and on a large scale, whichever side one looks, numbers of trees can be seen with the characteristic rusty, red stain on their stems, caused by the trickling down of sap from the holes made at the surface by the larvae.

The presence of the larvae in these stems was noticed some time ago, and search was made for the mature beetle, but as far as I am aware without success until last year, when by regular searching, specimens of both pupa and mature beetle were found in larval burrows, thus leaving no doubt as to their identity. This was about the middle of July, and as no specimens of the mature beetle could be found in the burrows in August, that must be about the time they fly. The larvae can be found at all times of the year and of all sizes, clearly denoting that they take several years to become mature.

Specimens have been sent to the Calcutta museum, and the information obtained that the beetle is a *Cœlosterna* and probably *C. scabrata* which does damage to Sal in Oudh. This year it is hoped that more specimens will be obtained and the beetle be properly identified.

The larvae, commencing high up, burrow down the entire length of the stem and often a considerable way down one of the main roots. The burrow is confined entirely to the heartwood, except where the larva comes to the surface, making communication with the outside. The Mature larva is half an inch across the head and so the burrow is no small one and causes great damage to the wood. After reaching its lowest limit the larva appears to hollow out a chamber sufficient to enable it to turn round, and then burrows straight up the stem again, sometimes following the old burrow, and sometimes striking a new one.

I have never come across more than one larva in the same stem and shall like to know whether this is a case of the survival of the fittest or whether one egg is deposited by the female beetle.

The mulberry is of little value as timber, and even as fuel is of poor quality. This being so, the damage is not of a very serious nature. It may be that in future it will be more valued as timber; for already there is a demand springing up for it for making tennis racquets and hockey sticks. Should this be so, then it will be necessary to take steps to get rid of the beetle.

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The full sized larva is about 3 inches long and of the usual longicorn type. The mature beetle is 1½ inches long in good specimens and is covered all over with a golden brown pubescence. Its elytra are rough especially near the thorax.

B. O. C.

II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

Calotropis Fibre.

SIR,

I forward for your inspection a small sample of *Calotropis procera* fibre sent to me by Messrs. Macdonald, Boyle & Co., London, which has been manufactured by their process, and which I think you will agree, may be characterized as excellent.* From the following extract of a letter received from Mr. Macdonald, you will perceive that he says that the fibre is finer and more silky than Rhea and will he thinks, for certain purposes, fetch a higher price in the market than that fibre.

I also send you a sample of Rhea for comparison. It may perhaps interest readers to know that there is a company in Bombay, the Rhea Fibre Treatment Company, Limited, whose pamphlet I am forwarding for your perusal and return, which have a Rhea Fibre Manufactory near Sion, (in Bombay) where Rhea fibre is prepared according to the Gomess process. The preparation of one ton of fibre under this process takes about a week. The Factory is not in operation now because no Rhea Stems can be obtained for it. Attempts have been made to grow the plants in the Bombay Presidency for the past two or three years for the supply of stems for the Factory, but apparently without success. In certain parts of Guzerat, climatic conditions, however, seem more favourable for its growth, so the Manager of the Company informs me and the results of experiment being made there now for its reproduction are awaited.

If the fibre of *Calotropis procera* is equally good, and better for some purposes than Rhea as stated by Mr. Macdonald, there seems no doubt that a fine field is opened up for the former. Rhea must, it is thought, be whipped out the field at any rate on this side of India under such circumstances.

1st March 1898. G. M. R.

Extract.

"I send you enclosed a sample of the Ak fibre produced from the stem by our process. We have only a small quantity an

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'therefore cannot carry on any extended experiments, but as far 'as we have gone, I think we have every reason to be satisfied 'with the result.

'The fibre is finer and more silky than Ramie† and will, I 'think, for certain purposes fetch a higher price in the market 'than that fibre, it was impossible to have it combed as there was 'so little of it, it would have been lost in the machine, but of 'course, it would have shown a better result, if it had gone 'through that process.

'Mr. Boyle intended to have come to Bombay next month 'with the necessary machinery for an extended trial, but unless 'the plague considerably abates, I am afraid he will be unable to 'come till later.

'We have no news yet from the Government as to our ap-'plication for a sole concession.

'I have sent a sample of the treated fibre to Arbuthnot '& Co."

† *N. B.*—Ramie is the term used for Rhea in the Straits Settlements.—G. M. R.

* NOTE.—The sample sent us for inspection is indeed a beautiful fibre, as it was well known the *Calotropis* can produce. Hon. Ed.

An Imperial Forest Blazer.

SIR,

I hope you will spare me a few lines in your valuable paper to thank "A Coopers Hill man" for his letter in the April number of the Indian Forester.

I quite agree with him that the more suggestions and proposals put forward the better, but what I meant to imply was, that the question could only be definitely decided by a Committee of a few representatives and not by the opinion of each individual. First of all let a Committee be formed who are to decide the question, then let individuals send in any proposals they wish to make, and the more the better, but the final settlement must rest entirely with the Committee.

I have always been led to understand that the question had been dropped owing to Coopers Hill men objecting to a Department blazer, and am very glad to learn that this is not so. I never meant to accuse all Coopers Hill men and I am sorry if my letter gave this impression. I think however "A Coopers Hill man," will excuse me when he learns that I am also "a Coopers Hill man."

The question is however no longer one for argument, but for action. It has been definitely decided that there is to be an Imperial Forest Blazer, and Mr. F. Gleadow has I see undertaken

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to arrange for the Committee and see the matter through, so those who are interested, may be assured that before long the question will be settled.

Nothing now remains, but for individuals to send in samples of what they propose for a blazer, badge and colours and the more the better, in order to provide material for the Committee to select from.

It is to be hoped that there will be no more bandying of words on the subject, but that those who are interested in the matter will send in proposals to Mr. Gleadow and I think he should let us know some definite date up to which proposals and samples will be accepted.

The settlement of the question seems now really coming to an end and I hope before many more numbers of the Indian Forester are issued we shall have a letter on behalf of the Committee declaring what are to be the colours and where they are to be obtained which will end this long delayed question for ever.

NIL DESPERANDUM.

8th May, 1898.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

How Rubber Trees (Ficus elastica) are grown in Assam.

By D. P. Copeland, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Darrang Division.

Ficus elastica.

1. The India rubber fig or Caoutchouc tree is indigenous in Assam where it is found a dominant tree in the evergreen forests. It requires an exceedingly damp atmosphere, and the best natural rubber trees are met with in the forests at the foot of the hills, or on the hills themselves up to an elevation of 2,500 feet.

Natural germination.

2. In its natural state, the rubber starts from seed dropped by birds in the forks of other trees, often 20 or 30 feet or even more from the ground, where it germinates, and the young plant remains an epiphyte for years until its aerial roots touch the ground; as soon as this takes place, the little epiphyte changes rapidly into a vigorous tree, throwing out numerous aerial roots which gradually envelope the tree on which it first began life and often kill it out.

Having started life so high up, it soon throws out branches which overtop the surrounding trees, and the numerous aerial roots, which fall from these and establish connection with the

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ground, in a few years enable it to dominate the forest growth around it.

Seed.

3. The seed of this tree is contained in fig-shaped fruit, about 75 seeds being found in one good sound fig. The fruit first begins to form on the trees in March and ripens from May onward to December. On some trees the whole crop ripens and falls off by June, but, as a rule, the rubber tree has fruit on it from April right up to December, the figs forming, ripening and falling off, the whole of the rains.

After collection the figs have to be carefully dried and mixed with pounded charcoal, which preserves the seed for several months.

Seed beds.

4. In the Charduar rubber plantation nursery, for a seed bed 40′ × 3½′, two to three seers of pulverized rubber seed. 10 seers ash and 20 seers of vegetable loam or good soil, is well mixed in a half cask and spread evenly over the bed, and then lightly tamped down and watered Such a bed should yield, with good germination, 2,000 seedlings and should be sufficient for putting out 100 acres of rubber planted 70′ × 35′. The beds must be well-raised and drained, the soil being prepared in the same way as for vegetable or flower seed. If sown in boxes, these should be put under the eaves of a house; if in beds, light removable shades must be put up to keep off the direct rays of the sun. The shades should be removed during rainy or cloudy weather and at night.

Light sandy loam is most suitable for seed beds; if the soil is stiff, charcoal dust should be mixed with it to make it porous and prevent caking. The bed or boxes must never be allowed to get dry.

Sowing.

5. This should be done exactly in the same way as for vegetable or flower seed which requires transplanting after germination. The figs are broken between the hand. As the seed is very minute, the particles of the fruit are left with the seed and sown with it, no attempt being made to clean or separate the pulverized figs. In order to distribute these minute seeds evenly over the seed beds, or boxes, a certain quantity of ash and soil is mixed with them.

Germination.

6. Germination takes place from the end of April to the end of the rains. Seed sown between October and January, requires daily watering and screening from the sun, and will not germinate before the end of April or the beginning of May, but seed sown any time during the rains will germinate in a few days (from five days to a fortnight). It follows that the best time for sowing seed is during the rains—that is from June to September.

The embryo appears on the germination of the seed as a seedling having a pair of opposite cotyledons with an entire

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margin destitute of incisions or appendage of any kind, with the exception of the notched or emarginate apex, oval in general outline, green in colour and of a glassy smoothness. The second pair of leaves shows a tendency to the alternate arrangement on the stem but appears at the same time. Their shape and venation are very different from those of the primary leaves for they have a central midrib and a distinctly coarsely-crenated margin. The third pair of leaves do not appear simultaneously, and are distinctly alternate, with a marked reddish colour: after this the plant is easily recognized.

Pricking out.

7. When the seedlings are one to two inches high in the seed beds or boxes, they should be transplanted into nursery beds, and put out in lines about a foot from each other. The nursery beds should be well-raised and drained, but the soil need not be so carefully prepared as for the seed beds. Here the plants are kept till the following rains, when they are dug up and taken to stockaded nurseries in the forest, and put out 5 × 5' on raised well-drained beds, where they remain for two years till they are required for planting operations.

Forest nurseries.

8. Almost every animal will eat the young rubber plants; it is, therefore, impossible to plant out small seedlings in the forest, owing to the destruction by the wild elephants and game, unless each individual plant is carefully fenced in. As this is too costly, and the rubber after it is 1—2 feet in height is very hardy and can be transplanted, with ordinary care, at any time of the year (the best time in Assam is between May and July), the seedlings are kept in stockaded nurseries in the forest where planting operations are to take place, and remain there till they are 10 or 12 feet high, that is, about three years after germination, when they are dug out and the roots are cut back 18 inches right around the plant and planted on the mounds in the forests.

Planting operations.

9. In artificial planting it is found that the rubber grows best on mounds, Lines are cut through the forest 20 feet wide and 70 feet apart from centre to centre; in these lines 15 feet stakes are put up 35 feet apart, Round each stake a mound is thrown up four feet high. The base of the mound is about ten feet in diameter and they taper to four feet on the top; on this mound the rubber tree is planted, care being taken that the roots are carefully spread out before they are covered up with earth. To prevent animals pulling the plants and wind blowing them down, they are tied to the stakes.

Cuttings.

10. The rubber tree can readily be propagated from the cuttings, if only perfectly ripe young branches or shoots are used, but the tree raised from cuttings does not appear to throw out aerial roots,

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and, as the future yield of the tree probably depends on its aerial root system, it is questionable whether trees raised from cuttings ought to be used except where required only as shade givers, such as in an avenue. In the Charduar rubber plantation, propagation by cuttings was given up very early, that is about 1876, the plantation having been commenced in 1873.

The best time to take cuttings is May and June.

General. 11. The rubber grows equally well on high land or low land, in forest land or grass land, so long as it is planted on a mound and its roots are not exposed to the sun. It is a surface feeder, but, as soon as its roots appear above ground, they must be covered with fresh earth until such time as the tree has formed a sufficient leaf canopy to protect itself.— (*Assam Forest Report 1896-97*).

IV.—REVIEWS.

Forest Administration Reports for 1896-97 for Assam, Central Provinces and Ajmere.

The *Assam* Reserved Forests contained at the close of the year, 3,681 square miles; while there were 11,244 square miles or thereabouts of unclassed State forest and waste land, exclusive of the areas in the Nága and Gáro Hills. The Chief Commissioner in his review, strongly advises that any forest land, which can be brought under cultivation should be given up, and expressly disclaims any intention of disforesting tracts which contain timber of value or which will not almost at once be brought under cultivation. Presumably, these lands will be taken from the unclassed forest, but some of the Reserved Forests are also to come under the new arrangement and especially these in Sylhet and Cachar. Mr. Cotten considers that Forest Reserves are quite unnecessary in Sylhet, but we see from the list of Reserved Forests that that District has only 170 square miles of such forest, and presumably that small area was originally reserved for some special purpose, which he may, perhaps, have not sufficiently taken into account.

There seems to be considerable difficulty about carrying out the provisions of Working Plans to judge by that for Goalpara, we see that though the whole of the yearly coupes are worked over, only about one-third of the available yield was cut. Pos-

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sibly, better sales might have been obtained if the work had been more concentrated: purchasers can hardly be expected to come forward very willingly to buy one tree in every four acres which is what was sold, or even one tree in one and a half acres, which is what the Working Plan allows. Even if it is necessary to cut undersized trees it would probably be better to concentrate work not only for a better market, but for better reproduction. From the remarks of the Chief Commissioner on the subject, it would seem that the sales are at a fixed royalty, but what that royalty is, is not very clear. Mr. Cotton says Rs. 47 per 100 cubic feet, but whether the rate is per cubic foot or per tree is not explained in the report.

Fire-protection was very successful, for the area specially protected was 769,416 acres and of this 765,225 acres or 99·5 per cent, escaped fire. Of the 3681 square miles of the Reserved forest in Assam, 2434 are reported as "self-protected," 50 as not requiring artificial isolation and 1197 only requiring isolation and special protection.

The information regarding "Natural Reproduction" is always likely to be interesting to our readers, so we reproduce the following remarks by Mr. Campbell, the Divisional Officer of Goalpara, as regards that Division :—

"As in previous years, inspection proves the rapid extension 'of sâl, particularly in grass lands. In the coupes of recent years, 'reproduction is also very satisfactory. Last year's seed crop was 'a great success, and seedlings are vigorous and thriving. In the 'year under review, the Guma forests had quite recovered from the 'previous season's entomological ravages. Sâl throughout the dis- 'trict seeded very freely and gave promise of an abundant crop, but 'the exceptionally dry cold weather, with gusty storms, followed 'by heavy and continuous rain and cold in May, seriously injured 'the process of maturing with the result that the crop can hardly 'be called an average one. The absence of rain was again res- 'ponsible for the reappearance of the *Dasychira Thwaitessii*, which 'selected low-lying and exposed areas, over which it devoured 'much of the new foliage throughout the district, but only in 'small blocks, thinly connected. In no case was defoliation com- 'plete, and in very few could any harm have been done, as May's 'rain suppressed the pest. Neither khair (*Acacia Catechu*) nor 'sissu (*Dalbergia Sissoo*) suffered from floods to the extent they 'had been subjected to for some years previously. Most trees 'flowered in profusion, and good results are anticipated. Through- 'out the district, grass lands are being rapidly invaded chiefly by 'inferior timber at present, which will afford cover for better 'material subsequently. The *Terminalia Chebula* favours the 'Maula, Janalia and Maktaigaon blocks almost to the exclusion 'of other varieties ; but elsewhere Simul (*Bombax malabaricum*) 'the three *Macarangas*, *Phyllanthus Emblica*, *Stereospermum* '*chelonoides* and their associates occupy the ground. Khair and

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'Sissu continue to extend on poor soils, whilst Uriam (*Bischoffia 'javanica*) is asserting itself wherever water is perennial."
as well as the following about the Garo Hills.

"Sâl has seeded very irregularly this year, though the inflo-'rescence promised well. In the Southern Range there was a good 'crop and germination was fairly satisfactory, but in the Northern 'Range both were poor. In the Western Range there was a 'middling crop. After an absence of six years the Divisional 'Officer had again an opportunity of inspecting these forests 'though only to a limited extent. The unclassed areas, as a result 'of the mode of cultivation, show distinct signs of deterioration, 'and extensive clearances of pure sâl clumps have been made in 'various favourable localities, whence dissemination of seed would 'have induced a most beneficial change in the forest growth. 'The bridle path, the Dambu road and the vicinity of the Songsac 'reserve present examples. Some interest attaches to the growth 'of sal amongst bamboos ; it certainly thrives and is protected 'by the shade of the *Dendrocalamus Hamiltonii*, but seems to 'grow and extend very slowly. In the Tarai bamboos (*Melocan-'na bambusoides*) there seemed to be a small increase in numbers 'but none in size, and the impression left was that seedlings die 'down after a certain time."

The Kokwa bamboo (*Dendocalamus Hamiltonii*) seeded generally in Nowgong during the year.

Naturally, of all the works in Assam, the India rubber (*Ficus elastica*) plantations are the most interesting to out siders and the Charduar Plantations which cover 1659 acres are celebrated. In an Appendix to the Report is given a brief account of how rubber trees are grown in Assam, which will be reproduced elsewhere in our pages, though too long to quote in *extenso* here. The Chief Commissioner in his Review says that he is "anxious to encourage private enterprise in 'rubber planting and has recently given a lease of land on favour-'able terms for this purpose." It would be interesting to know the cost per acre of a successful Indiarubber plantation up to the time it can begin to yield regularly.

The outturn of rubber from the forests is thus given.

	Maunds.	Rs.
Home rubber	1222	22,274
Foreign rubber	2825	33,904
	4047	56,178

It is apparently not stated whether any trees were tapped in the plantations; it is surely time to begin tapping trees which have reached 19 ft. in girth and an average height of 77ft. The saw mills working in the Assam Valley Districts, that obtain timber from

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Government forest, gave an outturn of 63,075 tea boxes which paid royalty a of Rs. 3,283. The financial results of the Forest year were :—

	Rs.
Receipts	... 4,40,936
Expenditure	... 2,82,191
Surplus	... 1,58,745

The Review by the Chief Commissioner bears, in most paragraphs, the oft reiterated complaint that the Department is not worked on sufficiently commercial lines. The evidence of the Report doubtless shews that the complaint has considerable foundation, but we venture to suggest that the remedy is easy to apply. So long as it is chiefly by the financial results of their administration that the work of forest officers is judged, those officers must be excused if they hesitate to introduce methods of disposing of the yearly supply which must necessarily, at first at any rate, bring with them a large decrease in rates and consequently a decrease in revenue. We quite agree with Mr. Cotton in thinking that. either by sales of coupes by auction or tender, or by reduction of royalty, the outturn of such forests as those of Goalpara and the Garo Hills should be fully disposed of; that measures should be adopted to make it possible for the Assam tea planters to obtain good and cheap boxes from the timber of the Government forests, and that in other ways the resources of the forests require badly to be developed, but no one of any experience in the matter can refuse to admit that such measures *must at first* bring with them a decrease of revenue and, where is the Conservator who will dare to face that in these days, when he knows that his work is after all chiefly judged by the amount of his surplus. When a manufacturer or a tradesman starts business, he has, almost always, we believe, to face a very low interest on his capital at first, he has to advertize, and spend money in obtaining a clientèle and it is only later that the results come in an increased interest. If the forest officers felt sure of the Government support, even in the event of a considerable reduction of net revenue at the outset, the arrangements for letting all sales of timber be in open market to the highest bidder without reserve, and of otherwise reducing rates or granting facilities, could be easily introduced, we feel sure, and would in a few years time result in a considerable increase to the forest revenue of the Province. The Assam forests suffer from the enormous preponderance of supply over demand ; they have to supply *free*, produce to the value of over 4 lakhs of rupees, as much as the whole forest gross revenue, and if the 'unsympathetic attitude' of the forest officers, of which Mr. Cotton complains, is to be entirely abandoned and better trade methods introduced, the Government must take steps to make them feel that a few years' falling off in revenue will not be considered against them.

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The *Central Provinces* Report is a record of good work only and presents but few features which will be worthy of special notice in these pages. We are very glad to note the great interest which the Chief Commissioner takes in the forest work and his evident sympathy with the Department. The area of forest under the Department at the end of the year amounted to 19,610 sq. miles so that only 47 sq. miles were excluded. The 'excision' work appears to have proved more difficult than was probably at first anticipated; for Sir Charles Lyall says that in Mandla 'the forests are honeycombed with patches of ryotwari cultiva-'tion and the proposals first submitted by the Settlement Depart-'ment involved the perpetuation of this state of affairs, to the 'serious injury of the forests." Survey work is going on fast and the report contains a map which shews that a very considerable area has been done already, leaving only about 2,800 sq. miles to be completed.

We are glad to see that the Chief Commissioner is pleased with the Hoshangabad District Working Plan which is stated to be a most careful and thorough piece of work.

The most noticeable thing in the Central Provinces Report is the result of the measures taken during the famine to relieve distress, and we think we ought to reproduce the remarks on the subject by the Chief Commissioner.

"The year under report, like the previous one, was an un-'favourable one for fire-protection. The rains ceased abruptly at 'the end of August, and the forests dried so rapidly that the first 'fire was reported early in October. Water was scarce, and the 'famine caused the desertion of many villages on which the 'forest officials depend for their labour. Added to this, the forests 'were very generally thrown open to the free collection of mahua 'and other edible products, and the presence in the forests of many 'thousands of hungry people, careless of anything but the satisfac-'tion of their immediate needs, and over whom the forest officials 'could have little control, might have been expected to cause 'widespread damage. It was, indeed, in consequence of these 'apprehensions that the specially protected A forests were, in 'many cases, excepted from the general concessions. In spite of 'all these difficulties, however, no less than 98 per cent. of the 'protected area was saved in the Southern Circle, while 94 per 'cent. was saved in the Northern Circle.

'These results must in part, no doubt, be attributed to the 'character of the season. The effects of the premature cessation 'of the monsoon rains were to some extent counteracted by 'frequent falls during the dry months. There was heavy and 'very generally distributed rain towards the end of November '1896, heavy rain about Christmas and heavy rain at the end of 'January. More rain fell in February and March, and there was 'a very heavy fall in April, the total for the month in Bilaspur

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reaching 4·81 inches, while in many districts some two inches 'or more fell. These falls kept the forests green and moist and 'made them less likely than usual to catch fire. Yet, none the 'less, the degree of success attained by the department as regards 'fire-protection must be termed remarkable, in view of the other 'difficulties that stood in the way of success. The principal 'failures in the Southern Circle were in Balaghat (Dhansua), 'Raipur (N. Sihawa) and Seoni (Ugli). The first and last of 'these areas were open to mahua pickers, and the same was the 'case in the Banjar Range in Mandla, in the Kalibhit Range in 'Hoshangabad and in the Burhanpur Range in Nimar, where 'also there were destructive fires. But these few instances of 'failure are not enough to disprove Mr. Thomas's theory that 'the people showed their gratitude for the concession granted 'them, by exercising special care. That the concession was greatly 'appreciated and was of the greatest efficacy in saving life is 'certain, whether the people refrained from endangering the 'forests out of gratitude to the Government or from fear of 'losing their own food-supply, or whether, as Mr. Fernandez 'thinks, they were restrained by fear of the law, the result is one 'on which both the people and the Forest Department are to be 'congratulated. Many lives have been saved, and it has been 'shown that this valuable food-supply can be made available in 'times of famine without unsual risk to the forests."

The financial results of the year were :—

	Rs.
Receipts	7,62,300.
Expenditure	8,63,498.
Deficit	1,01.198.

In remarking that this is the first time in its history that the Central Provinces Forest Department has shown a deficit, Sir Charles Lyall remarks that under the circumstances no other result was to be expected, for "all the causes which in the pre-'vious year combined to produce a fall in the revenue were 'present during the year under report in an aggravated form. 'Private forests were worked at very low rates, and large conces-'sions were made from Government Reserves, while the deficient 'rainfall of the year acted directly on the forest receipts in vari-'ous ways, as for instance in causing the total destruction of the 'valuable *gandhri* grass crop in Bilaspur.

'The Government forests are, however, maintained primarily 'for the protection and benefit of agriculture, and in a year of 'famine they fulfil one of the principal objects of their existence in 'affording sustenance to men and cattle. The loss which they 'have sustained in the last two years must be looked upon as their

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'contribution to famine relief. The value of the free grants is 'put at Rs. 1,52,089 in the Northern Circle against Rs. 1,01,387 'in the preceding year. From paragraph 85 of the Southern 'Circle Report, which, however, is not quite clear on the point, it 'appears that the value of free grants in that circle amounted to 'Rs. 70,042.

'But for these free grants, then there would have been a 'surplus of about 1¼ lakhs, and if the capital expenditure, calcu- 'lated in the same way as was done in paragraph 12 of last year's 'Resolution, be also deducted, the account will stand as follows :—

'Receipts ...	...	7,62,300
'Value of free grants ...	...	2,22,131
Total	...	9,84,431
'Current expenditure	...	7,74,906
Surplus	...	2,09,525
'Percentage on gross earnings	...	21·3"

The Report on the *Ajmere* forests, like that of the Central Provinces, does not contain many items of special interest. The exceptional character of the year had the effect that was to be expected in the fall of net revenue and the comparative ill-success of fire protection. The area of Reserved forest remained at 139 sq. miles while the number of fires was 6 as against 3 in 1895-96. A Working Plan for Ajmere was prepared and revised by Mr. E. E. Fernandez, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on special duty for the purpose.

The financial results of the year were :—

		Rs.
Receipts ...	...	12,532
Expenditure ..	...	21,014
Deficit ...	...	8,482

The Ajmere forests were, during the year, managed by Lala Har Swarup, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, from the N.-W. Provinces,

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Working Plan Report for the Moharbhanj State.

PREPARED BY C. C. HATT, I. F. S.

Moharbhanj is a small State covering some 5,000 square miles of more or less hilly country, situate near the coast of Orissa, between Bengal and the Central Provinces, that is to say between Midnapore, Singhbhoom, Balasore and Cuttack. The interior hills rise to near 4,000 feet and graduate off to undulating lands towards the boundaries. The climate is most unhealthy and the petty officials were unwilling to render any assistance to the working plans party. A proper working plan could not be made, but some important steps have been taken towards it. Nearly 2,000 square miles have been indicated as forest, some to be protected, and some to be reserved, but only two areas of 51 and 36 square miles, respectively, have been proposed as regular Working Circles. The principal species is sal, for which there is a good demand, but other species, such as *Diospyros Melanoxylon*, *Pterocarpus Marsupium*, *Dalbergia latifolia*, *Gmelina arborea*, and *Ougeinia dalbergioides* are appreciated. The soil consists of metamorphic rocks of all kinds, gneiss, granite, quartz, laterite both as plateaux and in the plains, and alluvium of various characters, with and without lime nodules. The laterite soil is poor, the alluvium, generally a stiff yellowish whitish clay, is suitable for cultivation. The rainfall varies between 50 and 70 inches annually, the maximum being in July and August, when 10 to 20 inches may fall in the month.

The way in which forest is turned into cultivation is as follows:—The undergrowth and small trees having been burnt and cut away, the larger trees are ringed and left to die. The land thus roughly cleared is called "Dahi" and after ploughing is sown with early paddy, oilseeds, etc. After two or three years crops, the soil, if lateritic, is usually abandoned, but if alluvial, the stumps are removed and the land thoroughly cleared, it is then called "Asu" and is more valuable. If water is available for irrigation, bunds and cuts are made, and the land becomes valuable "Jal." The wilder people never get beyond the "Lahi" stage, which is practically the same as "jhum" in Assam, and the state of the forests bears eloquent testimony to its ruinous effects, thousands of rupees worth being burnt for a few pice worth of grain.

All the forests belong entirely to the Raja, who is endeavouring to follow an enlightened policy and do for his people as much as they will let him, but his task is made difficult by the prejudices and ignorance of even the officials of his state. The Forest Act is to come into force, and the forests will be notified under it as Reserved or Protected. The latter will be worked especially for the benefit of the people, who pay a cess to the State for their firewood, as for wood for houses and implements, taking what they want from the forest in return. Mr.

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Hatt probably speaks loosely in calling this a "*right*." The division into Reserved and Protected is unnecessary and impolitic; as it has long been recognised that the latter class is a failure and cannot be protected at all, while it is quite easy to arrange for popular privileges in Reserved Forests, even to the extent of ruining the latter. The notification of any lands whatever as Protected Forest unless, perhaps, purely village grazing areas, cannot be too strongly deprecated.

The Moharbhanj forests, in their present state, appear to resemble in their sufferings, the Reserved Forests of Bombay, about which a good deal has been said from time to time. Within reach of villages, the forest is grazed "to the point of extermina-'tion." The villagers "cut, hack about, and remove the large 'trees and poles that are still remaining, and thus form a third 'auxiliary to the fire and cattle, in their anxiety to produce a 'howling wilderness at the shortest possible notice." But the great enemy is fire, "the whole countryside for miles round is ablaze, 'this commences about the middle of February and continues 'incessantly till put a stop to by the rains about the end of May. 'The object in view is to clear away the undergrowth and thus 'facilitate shikar and locomotion generally through the forests." This reads exactly like the growl of a Bombay Forest officer concerning his Reserves, only in Moharbhanj there is not yet the pretence of protection. Another general method is to apply fire to the bases of the large trees, so as to increase the size of the clearing and drive the forest boundary further and further.

The forests seem to have been originally preserved for shikar. The earliest attempt at working them regularly was by selling a timber-route to the highest bidder, who was entitled to take out everything he could get along his route. "This let in 'the big contractor, the thoroughness of whose work is testified by 'the present condition of the plains forests . . . There is a wealthy 'Babu in Balasore the bulk of whose fortune was made in this 'manner . . . having made a clean sweep of all the trees over 3 feet 'girth. The extent of forests denuded by this man amounts to 'about 200 or 300 square miles." That is a fleabite compared with what has sometimes gone on in British territory, when the Forest Officer knew that his only chance in life lay in pleasing the Revenue Department to which he was subordinate. This vicious spur is still in action, and will act as long as the Forest Department is not independent of such stimuli.

The late Maharaja stopped the route system, and issued orders prohibiting the felling of certain trees without permission, but the benefit has been nullified by "the utter disregard shown by 'the subordinate revenue officials" and "the forest is mutilated in all 'directions, and thefts of timber are carried on without any attempt 'at concealment all over the state." Just like our Bombay colleagues again, but Moharbhanj is not blessed with a power of

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compounding offences, ridiculous in its extent, and now considered far more dangerous to the officer than to the thief. The route system was followed by a lease system, the conditions being characterised by all the "childlike and bland" innocence of the drafting Babu whose father-in-law is the contractor. The lease runs for 9 years, during which time, having due regard to the checks upon him, the lessee has in practice the faculty of taking out everything he chooses to lay hands on. There is no penal clause for breach of conditions, and examination may only be made at two places outside the state territories, and therefore jurisdiction. This last is an exceedingly artistic touch. It is, in fact, doubtful whether the absolute monarch's favourite expletive, "Off with his head," is quite the useless anachronism we pretend it is. Another lease covers all the "dry timber" within an area of 500 square miles. It likewise covers all the green, as is the occasional custom in British territory also. But the Raja has wisely cancelled this lease, though he may hereby incur the reputation of a spoilsport among the more astute and unscrupulous of his subjects. The Forest revenue has risen from Rs. 13,773 in 1884-85 to about Rs. 38,000 at present, two-thirds of it being derived from the household cess on wood. When 60,000 cubic feet of good sal timber are let go for Rs. 2,301, it is apparent that there is some hope of the revenues expanding freely under judicious treatment. A log of 30 cubic feet is worth Rs. 45 in Midnapur, and the carriage costs Rs. 9-6-0, so that a purchaser could afford to pay 4 as. per cubic foot to the State, and still make 30 per cent profit.

The Reserved forests include about 1,000 square miles. In this area no sound and promising sal whatever is to be cut. The treatment is to consist in the removal of bad and unpromising sal, with other kinds of trees as required, and all minor produce. The object is to re-establish sal where its supremacy has been imperilled. The crowns of seedbearers are to be kept dense enough to touch when swayed by the wind, until such time as a young crop is obtained. The different species are placed in the following order of merit, which, would perhaps, not be the same in all districts, (1) *Shorea robusta*, (2) *Diospyros Melanoxylon* (3) *Pterocarpus Marsupium*, (4) *Dalbergia latifolia and Sissu* (5) *Chloroxylon Swietenia* (6) *Soymida febrifuga* (7) *Ougeinia dalbergioides* (8) *Gmelima arborea* (9) *Adina cordifolia* (10) *Terminalia tomentosa* (11) *Albizzia Lebbek.*

The two small working circles are selected simply because they contain the most accessible of the remaining mature sal. The difficulty will be to get rid of the useless material to make room for good trees. The method adopted is selection, with the object of utilizing mature trees while at the same time improving the general condition and constitution the forest. The felling

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cycle is ten years, and of the blocks or compartments are laid out simply by ocular estimate.

The exploitable size is fixed at 7 feet girth, as between 7 feet and 8 feet some 27 per cent, of the trees are unsound. But this unsoundness is artificial, and will disappear with good conservancy, so that the exploitable size may ultimately be raised to 8 feet. The possibility is estimated at 1,000 to 1,500 trees annually each circle. This is a considerable margin, which will be brought within closer limits presumably by the state of the canopy, on the due maintenance of which Mr. Hatt very properly lays great stress. By the end of the 10 years much road making will have been got through, the plan will, if necessary, be revised, and perhaps by that time it may be possible to bring other areas under working plans. This will however depend mostly on the progress made with the roads.

The protected area includes about 1,100 square miles of inferior forest, and 760 square miles of jungled waste. In the impossibility of providing forest guards the safety of this area will be entrusted to the actual village officers who are at present aiding and encouraging every kind of loot, just as obtains in certain much more important British districts. These men are to be kept virtuous by exempting them from the wood-cess, but it is doubtful if they can be persuaded that Rs. 5 remission is superior to Rs. 25 loot, plus popularity. The production of tusser silk is stated to invariably result in the "complete destruction of the forest" in the areas utilized. The Report is accompanied by 5 excellent maps.

F. G.

V—SHIKAR AND TRAVEL.

A Shikar Story.

DEAR MR. EDITOR

I send you the enclosed history in great trepidation for, in the first place, you will probably be inundated with Shikar stories, the result of Tawkwé's appeal to you, and your appeal to Tawkwé; and secondly, I dread Tawkwé's criticism, for we have no sample of his work on which we can regulate our own composition. But it is a simple story and there are no spots and few stripes.

O. C.

"Fortune is merry
And this mood will give us anything."

T'is not for me to explain events, but merely to record them. The facts are simply that four ponderous and ancient tigers had for years roamed in the Sal Forests of one of the submontane districts of the N.-W. P., and defying all the wiles and tricks of a

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host of sportsmen, and that they all died within three weeks, succumbing to the simplest of artifices. So great was the familiarity of the country-side, that each tiger had a name—there was the Bankati tiger, the Chandparah tiger, the Domohani tiger, and the Phuta Kua tiger. Whenever other sport was scarce, we used to play with one of these monsters: he reciprocated the joke, and, as a reward, received a full meal of beef, but he never went so far as to offer his striped carcase as a target. The Bankati tiger began it, he frightened a tied-up buffalo till it broke its rope and fled to its companion; the tiger followed in the track and killed the companion, dragging him away for a quarter of a mile into thick green grass some 10 ft. high. We constructed a machan on a sal pole. It was conspicuous; our only hope was, that the tiger would come through the grass, and so not observe the naive attempt at concealment. At 5 p. m. a "Kakar" informed us, with satisfying reiteration, that his majesty was on foot, and a few minutes later we heard him crashing through the grass. The buffalo lay in a little circuit of beaten down grass some 6 ft. wide, and the tiger protruded his head into this well of vegetation and seemed astonished at the light thrown on the subject. He advanced one step and the next instant, as the shot rang out, he was charging wildly through the high grass. After a run of some 50 yards, he changed his mind, revenge seemed to possess him; returning at the same speed, he ended his life with a magnificent spring which landed him some 15 yards from the buffalo. We brought him thence and then the secretive villagers confessed to a tale of woe. Each had lost the pet lamb of their flock: to believe them, the Bankati tiger had decimated the herd.

The Chandparah tiger continued it. He took to walking one road every night, and one evening he found a buffalo on his path; he was very startled at this operation and bounded heavily away, but returned and killed and ate. He selected a small island of thick young growth surrounded by a sea of grass in which to hide his meal. The place seemed impossible, but we tied up a machan on the mainland, and blockaded the island from one side only. Any other tiger must have come from the other side, but the Chandparah tiger arrived at sunset from the rear; he puffed and panted as no blockade runner should, and to crown his folly, stood to take breath before crossing the open. When he did cross, he had two bullets through him, and the passage was accomplished under fire. He reached the other side and lay stretched, a silver tiger, in the beams of the rising moon.

The Domahani tiger I can only write of with regret and remorse. He was the friend and playmate of my youth. Living close to the house in inaccessible ravines and heavy grass, he was always ready during the past 20 years to accept hospitality but never to return it. He was invariably out when one dropped in, and the countless offerings he had absorbed, had been duly appreciated; he did credit to his gram. His fore pads were eight

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fingers across, without the toes, and his figure was far from elegant. What possessed the old fellow to kill a buffalo and drag it away from his favorite ravines cannot be explained. He ate half of it and left it lying in the sal forest, we thought he had as usual abandoned it. It was getting dusk and timber carts had passed with bewildering creaking, with shouts and songs of nervous drivers, when a shadowy form stood near the kill. Now or never the fading light insisted, and we strained our ears to get some evidence of the result of the shot. A slow trotting for a short distance through the forest, then silence, intimating that the tiger had subsided into a walk. We went home grieved but not astonished at the escape of our old companion. The next morning we found the tracks of a great tiger crossing the road towards the kill. It seemed conclusive evidence that our friend had recovered from his fright and had resumed his meal. The buffalo had been moved, fresh drops of blood from the carcase showed that we had disturbed a chota hazri. Shamefaced before the trackers we brusquely gave the order to remove the machan, yet took one more sorrowful look at the deep claw marks made the night before by the startled tiger. We sat down and took the angle of fire; and puzzled, gave the order to track up as far as possible. At 20 yards one drop of blood; at 30, the tiger had lain down, and so, carefully picking up the evidences, at 200 yards we we found him dead and stiff in his favorite "Nalas."

The Phuta Kua tiger had thus fortuitously arrived during the night and had partaken of the Domohani tiger's meal. The next day he killed a herd buffalo and dragged it across the river, taking up the quarters vacated by the Domohani tiger. On the third day he accepted a bait but left it lying near water and grass. The machan was favorable, we looked down into a sea of grass, at our backs the well known ravines. The grazing buffaloes drew off at sunset in response to the weird calls of the herdsmen, and while they were yet in sight, the tiger came out of the forest and flung himself at full length in the green boggy soil. For full 10 minutes he lay rolling over and over but screened from view by an intercepting bush. It was getting dark and we risked standing up in the machan, aiming at the parting of the white hair between the forelegs. The bullet was arrested in the strong bones of shoulder and spine, and the tiger fell dead 20 yards away. The jungles are now lonely and silent, no belling sambhar or noisy kakar disturbs the night, and we must wait till other tigers find out the convenience of these happy hunting grounds, before we can again regard them with feelings of interest, or expect to find Fortune in a merry mood. I will not trouble your readers with details of measurements. Suffice it to say that the quartette measured exactly 40 feet and that the largest skull was not ¼ inch less in combined length and breadth than that spoken of in Blanford as immense.

G. G.

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VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES

Timber and other Trades of Cuba.

Throughout the civilised world the struggle which now centres around the shores of the island of Cuba is of absorbing interest and although we, as a nation have no direct concern in the questions at issue, still it is of no little importance to us from a commercial standpoint. Owing to the unsetled state of the country, our trade with Cuba has been shrinking for many years, and during the progress of the last rebellion it has dwindled down to very small proportions.

In 1888 the value of our exports to the Spanish West Indies amounted to £2,734,500, whereas in 1895 they were valued at £443,640 only; and our imports from the unhappy countries which in 1888 were valued at £323,028, had fallen away in 1893 to £131,567. Our exports were of a very miscellaneous character, but cottons and piece goods predominated largely. Ten years ago we sent 55 million yards of cottons, but two years ago we only sent 26 million yards.

Our principal imports from the Spanish colonies are rum, tobacco, coffee, and wood. Mahogany, cedar, lignum-vitæ, ebony, genadillo, live oak, fustic, quebracho and rosewood grow to great perfection in this topical climate. The mahogany is highly esteemed in the European markets, being second only to best Spanish wood from St. Domingo. The quantities of these valuable woods reaching our shores has been diminishing yearly during the period of disturbance in the island; the late insurrection however has never altogether stopped the export.

The import of mahogany and hard woods of all kinds to England has been as follows in the respective years:—

	Tons.		Tons.
1888	... 8,397	1892	... 4,021
1889	... 6,347	1893	... 4,891
1890	... 5,323	1894	... 8,662
1891	.. 5,554	1895	... 3,805

It will be noticed that in 1894 there was an increase, which consisted of a large quantity of small and inferior mahogany and cedar shipped that year from Nuevitas. The 3,805 tons exported to England in 1895 was valued at £22,363. The shippers of Cuba mahogany and cedar. we conclude, take a very lively interest in the European markets, judging from the number of subscribers to the "Journal" in the island.

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When a stable Government is established in the island there is little doubt but that our commercial relations with the Cubans will rapidly increase to their former proportions.

Cuba is the largest island of the Antilles, and the most important colonial possession of Spain. It has a length of rather more than 750 miles, and an average width of 50 miles, its area being about 40,000 square miles. It is larger than Ireland and less in area than England. It was discovered by Columbus on his first voyage in 1511, and from the salubrious climate it enjoys and the productiveness of the soil it is called the "Queen of the Antilles." The population of the island is little over a million and a half, consisting of about a million whites, nearly half a million coloured, and some forty thousand Asiatics.

Cuba is evidently of volcanic origin, which has given her a bold coast in many places, with numerous and fine harbours Along the north shore are Bahiahonda, Cabanas, Mariel, Havana Matanzas, Cardenas, Saguala Grande, Caibarien, Nuevitas, Manati, Puerto Padre Gibara, Banes, Nipe, Levisa, Tanamo, and Baracoa. Along the south shore are Guantanamo or Cumberland Harbour, Santiago de Cuba, Manzanillo, Casilda, Jagua or Cienfuegos. Some of these are magnificent in size and depth of water, and their names are familiar to the European mahogany trade.

Lying along the north shore are 570 isles and keys, while the southern coast has 730, a total of 1,300.

The geographical situation of Cuba is extremely favourable to commerce, while its extraordinary fertility of soil and magnificent climate make it a treasury of natural resources. Topographically, the island presents every phase of surface and altitude. A chain of mountains extends from east to west, forming, as it were, a backbone to the land. This attains in places an altitude of 8,000 feet, giving a wide range of climate and atmospheric conditions, together with a varied flora. Another range, about 200 miles long, skirts a part of the Southern Coast. The rivers, of which there are about 250, flow from the mountain heights to the sea. They are rapid and picturesque, and water valleys whose fertility and beauty are unsurpassed perhaps anywhere on earth.

Havana, the metropolis of the island, has a population of 200,000, and is an important commercial centre. Its admirable situation makes it the emporium for Central America, being situated on the busiest thoroughfare of the Western hemisphere.

The whole of the trees growing on the island are hardwoods and unsuitable for constructive purposes; all building timber, therefore, has to be imported, and the nearest producing country being the United States, both the export and import trade with Cuba is of considerable importance, especially to the pitch pine districts of the South.

In time of peace they always have been important buyers of pitch pine, and now, with ruined towns and desolate plantations to rebuild when peace shall come again, they will require a quantity

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of material which will tax the gulf mills to supply. When the task of rehabilitation comes, and immigration and material development sets in, it has been estimated that the demands for lumber alone, in such a case, will aggregate not less than 300,000,000 feet or 5,000,000 loads annually, or 200 feet super per capita, and this would afford a good outlet for the lower grades of pitch pine lumber.—(*Timber Trades Journal.*)

Vulcanizing Wood by the Haskin Process.

On the 27th January last, a demonstration of the Haskin Wood Vulcanizing Co.'s extensive machinery and plant, used in the process of Haskinizing (or vulcanizing) wood, was given at Millwall, London, on the site of Samuda's Old Shipbuilding Yard.

The question of wood preservation is one that has necessarily engaged the minds of eminent scientists and inventors for many years, but the success that has attended their efforts up to the present has been but small.

The original idea, which has been worked upon up till now, was to take the sap out, so as to permit the injection of other substances into the wood, whereas it has been proved that the sap should be retained, and made to preserve the wood, being composed of certain albuminous, nitrous, oily, and resinous substances. Thus, does the act of nature, by her laws of heat and atmospheric pressure, create in course of time the hard, sound fibre of the wood.

When wood is heated, as in ordinary distillation, the substances composing the sap that have not been converted into the fibre, are not extracted, but chemically changed, and form a most powerful antiseptic mixture. This has been separated for commercial purposes into acetic acid, methyl alcohol, methyl acetate, and tarry matter containing phenol, creosote, carbolic acid, etc. These chemicals result from the action of heat upon the natural sap of the wood, and are entirely different from the sap of the tree in its natural state.

Up to the present "Charring" has been the operation chiefly relied upon to resist the effect of decay from exposure to moisture. Stakes and piles are generally thus treated before being driven into the ground. Casks are charred by coopers when they are intended to hold water; and the experience of ages has shown, beyond all question, that the charring of wood will preserve it from decay, so far as the heat penetrates beyond the flame line. By this process wood has been made to last for centuries. Specimens were taken from the pyramids of Egypt, and several logs of wood were found which had been divided

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in the middle, chamfered off at each end, the inside dug out and burnt or charred, both on the inside and on the outside. The burnt surface appeared to have been extinguished by immersing the dug-out in water. Afterwards they were covered with some kind of papyrus, or cloth, highly ornamented and used for burial cases more than 2,000 years ago, and are now in a good state of preservation. Charring is based upon the only correct principle, that of "utilizing the natural fluids in the wood" by the application of heat.

But in charring the heat cannot penetrate to the centre of timber without burning too deeply; some of the fluids are not reached, while others escape and are lost in the operation; hence charred posts and timbers are found sound to the depth of half to one inch (so far as the heat had penetrated) but rotten in the centre.

Now Haskinizing (or Vulcanizing) deals with the natural fluids or properties contained in the wood itself—and consists in placing raw wood in a cylindrical treating chamber, made of boiler-plate of any size, or numbers of them placed together—according to the output required—and submitting the same for a few hours to a medium of superheated, circulating, compressed air, which effects the chemical change. The air pressure employed prevents evaporation, while the intense heat passes through to the centre of the timber, causing the constituents to organize into an oleaginous compound, saturating the fibre, and filling the pores. In cooling down under the same pressure, the new compound becomes consolidated with the fibre, thus indurating, strengthening, perfecting, beautifying, and preserving the wood from decay.

The germinative principle inherent in the sap is destroyed, all fungi, germs, or insect life are killed, and no offensive odour is emitted from the wood after treatment.

Heat increases the affinity of substances for each other. It is a remarkable fact that water, under pressure sufficient to prevent its escape into steam, may be so highly heated, that it will decompose natural fat, and, as an organic base, form a perfect and fixed combination with certain fatty elements.

Haskinized wood makes excellent railway sleepers and timbers of all kinds for stations; telegraph, telephone, and signal poles; bridges, docks, piles and mining timbers; for shipbuilding, masts, decks, interior woodwork, etc. It is tough and strong.

The great value of the process is due to its fixing the 55 per cent. of fluid matter within the wood in a condition such that it cannot ferment or vegetate; nor is it liable to dissolve or wash out, but is evenly distributed, filling the wood cells and ducts, and debarring entrance to moisture or germs of decay.

There is no doubt but that the preservation of wood from decay alone will benefit the world equally as much, if not more, than the combined products of all the great inventions in the treatment of iron and vegetable substances.

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Shortly, the process is the subjection of timber to air at high temperature and pressure. The temperature used may be as high as 400° F., and the pressure as much as 200lbs per square inch. The effect of this is to sterilize the wood, and impregnate it with antiseptics, and this impregnation has been effected in the cells and fibre of the wood itself, by parts of the wood having been raised to the critical temperature at which resolution of the less stable fractions and of the woody tissue begins.

There is no doubt that the Haskin process is one that depends for its success on precision in working.

The plant exhibited at the inspection consisted of two cylindrical vessels, each 120ft. long by 6ft. 6in. diameter, secured at the further end, but free to move over rollers, when their temperature rises during the process. These vessels are built of boiler plate, and are made in sections, so as to facilitate jointing and transport. The end nearest the wharf is closed by a door of very ingenious construction, the same being counterpoised and controlled by a hand wheel, by which it can be shut to, and opened, for the insertion of a load of timber in less than two minutes. The wedge-shaped bars, actuated from the centre of the doors by a peculiar gear, are shot into their slots by a single operation. These doors weigh, we understand, something between eight and ten tons, and being worked on a hinged arm, are both novel and ingenious.

In the cylindrical receptacles the wood is subjected for about eight hours to the action of air at a temperature of 400° F., and at a pressure of 200lbs. on the square inch.

Tram rails run the whole length of the cylinders and are connected with the rails that run from the edge of the wharf; also steam pipes used for the initial warming of the cylinders before the actual treatment of the wood begins. When the timber to be treated has been run in on trucks, steam is turned into these pipes, and the exuding moisture from the exterior of the timber is expelled, and run off through cocks at the bottom of the cylinder. The latter are then shut, and heated compressed air is driven in. Air-compressing engines supply this, having steam and air cylinders both 18-in diameter by 30-in stroke. The air is compressed at one stage to a pressure of 200lbs. per square inch, and to aid this, water is injected into the air-compressing cylinder, so as to cool the air heated by compression. A water separator next dries the moist compressed air by its passage. The air is now pumped by a circulating pump through tubes heated by live steam, and thence through a sort of pipe stove, heated by coke. Its temperature is raised to 400° F., and it is ready for delivery to the timber-treating cylinders, where its constant circulation is fully maintained. From these it passes to a tubular cooler, and is taken to the circulating pump, and sent again through the same evolution. Any loss of pressure in the course of circulation is easily made good by use of the compressor. Of course, the

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temperature employed depends on the class of timber to be treated, and may in some cases be such that the heating of the air can be performed by live steam without the curriculum above set out. Where, however, sleepers are concerned, a high temperature is essential, as they are subject to so many destructive agencies.

The works as inspected are admirably fitted for their purpose, and ample provision has been made for necessary extensions should the process become commercially adaptable, and be taken up by the proper parties.

Steam, for all the purposes mentioned, is provided by three Galloway boilers, 28ft. by 7ft., working at a pressure of 200lbs. per square inch. The whole plant, indeed, has been constructed by Messrs. Galloway, and is of the most improved and substantial description. We will describe the boilers at length later on.

Five different experiments have been made with Haskinized wood for the purposes of ascertaining whether the white ant would pursue its ravages with this wood as in the case of ordinary timber, and the results were somewhat startling. A strip of Haskinized wood was placed in a nest of ants in Burmah, and left for three months ; when the nest was visited after the expiry of that period, it was found deserted, and the wood untouched. A like experiment was conducted on two subsequent occasions, with the same result. The value, therefore, of this Haskin process for Indian requirements can scarcely be over-estimated ; for not only has it thus proved itself impervious to the white ant, but it apparently effectually disperses them, and, therefore, vulcanized wood, under this process, should have a fair future in front of it throughout India.

The exact chemical effect produced by the process has not yet been definitively settled, but certainly it should be of sufficient theoretical interest, and practical importance, to justify close and systematic investigation ; and no doubt this will be undertaken now that the process has become a commercial fact.

Many of the American Railway Companies are already using sleepers preserved by the Haskin process; and several railway companies in England have notified their intention of giving sleepers, treated by this process, a trial. With regard to the Galloway boilers employed by the Company, we may mention that they are each 28ft. long by 7ft. diameter, and are capable of evaporating 6,000lbs. of water per hour with average coal and draught. They are suitable for a 200lbs. working pressure, the shell plates being thirteen-sixteenths of an inch thick, and other parts in proportion. They are constructed of the best mild steel, capable of withstanding a tensile strain of 26 to 30 tons per square inch, with not less than 20 per cent. elongation in 10 inches.

The furnaces are 2ft. 9in. in diameter, and the flue plates are supported by 30 Galloway cone tubes, and 10 patent pockets are fixed in the flue to divert the flame amongst the cone tubes.

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The boiler ends are solid, rolled in one piece ¾ in. thick; and, before leaving the works, each boiler was tested with water pressure of 300lbs. per square inch.

The usual mountings are fitted on the boilers, and a 2 in. feed valve is used. The dead-weight safety valve is of 5in. area, and there is one high steam and low water safety valve on Galloway's patent. A 6in. steam junction valve (ranch pattern) is used, and the usual anti-priming pipe, gauges, etc., are attached.

As before mentioned, the machinery has been supplied by Messrs. Galloway, of Manchester, and certainly the material, workmanship, and efficiency of the whole plant, redound to the already high reputation of this firm —(*Indian and Eastern Engineer*).

Forestry Education. *

By Dr. William Schlich, C. I. E.,

Professor of Forestry in the Engineering College for India, Coopers Hill.

About eight years ago this Society paid me the compliment of electing me an honorary member. While most cordially appreciating the honour, I have for some time past felt very uncomfortable, because I have, up to date, not been able to show in a tangible way to what extent I consider myself under an obligation to you. Hence, when our worthy President invited me to to address you to-day, I seized the opportunity most eagerly, trusting that the remarks which I shall be able to offer to-day, may in some small degree contribute to the furtherance of the aims and objects of the Society; and I further trust that the present occasion may be only the beginning of my becoming more closely connected with the work of the Society, than has been the case in the past.

Our President left it entirely to me to choose a subject upon which to address you. I considered the matter, and I arrived at the conclusion that I could not do better than to offer a few remarks upon the question which, I know, has of late been uppermost in your minds, namely, "Forestry Education." This subject is all the more congenial to me, as I have for many years past been associated with the education of foresters, and if I know anything at all, I ought to know something about the requirements of forestry education.

* An address delivered at the forty-fourth Annual Meeting of the Royal Scottish Arboricultural Society, held on the 27th January, 1897.

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Is Better Forestry Education Wanted?

The first point which demands our attention is—Whether a case for better forestry education than has hitherto been obtained in this country, has been made out?

Gentlemen, forestry is an "industry," and, like all other industries, it is subject to the law of demand and supply. Until a recent time the demand was for arboriculturists and not sylviculturists. That demand was admirably met by the corps of gentlemen who attend to the aboriculture on the various estates of this country. To expect that these gentlemen should suddenly turn into experienced sylviculturists, to suit a demand which has only lately sprung up, is hardly fair. Until recent times the economic question was, as far as the bulk of British woodlands is concerned, of minor importance, since these woodlands were maintained chiefly for other objects, such as beauty of landscape, or the production of fine specimens of trees grouped in picturesque fashion over the estates, or for game coverts. I am sure I may safely say that these requirements were admirably met by Scottish wood managers. But of late, however, a change has come. Agriculture has fallen low, and the rent-roll of many proprietors has been seriously affected. The economic or financial importance of woodlands, and the profitable utilisation of waste lands, have come more into the foreground. Hence the increased demand for skilled sylviculturists as wood managers, who are fully acquainted with the economic aspect of the industry. This is all very well. But forests which have been hitherto managed for other objects cannot suddenly be converted into what I call "economic forests." The change takes time, and if proprietors are beginning to get impatient, they have clearly only themselves to blame. The transition from the one condition to the other takes a considerable space of time, and it demands the greatest skill of the sylviculturist to effect it without loss to the proprietor; in fact, it means, in only too many cases, the gradual utilisation of the woods now existing to the best advantage, and the production of new woods which will meet the requirements of modern economic forestry, and not of arboriculture. The thing can be done, but the operation requires the training of wood managers on lines somewhat different from those hitherto followed in this country.

To understand the difference between the two things more fully, it will be well if I touch for a few minutes on the principal causes why the timber now produced in Britain cannot compete with that imported from abroad. On this subject so much has been written and said of late that I can compress what I have to say into a few sentences. Indeed, the *Transactions* of this Society during the last two years are a very storehouse of information on the subject.

You are aware that the general drawback, from which forestry in this country labours, is the absence of a regular demand for

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home-grown timber. You also know that, until a comparatively recent date, at any rate, most Government contracts for works of construction contained a clause to the effect that no home-grown timber would be allowed to be used. If we take those broad facts into consideration, it is easy to perceive that the explanation may be condensed into the following two statements :—(1) The home-grown timber is, generally speaking, inferior in quality to that imported from abroad ; (2) it comes into the market at irregular intervals and in fluctuating quantities. Exceptions exist, but here only the average conditions can be considered. These drawbacks can be removed only by improved sylvicultural methods, and a systematic management of the forests. You all know now that the plantations in this country have been too heavily thinned during the first half of their life. By such a procedure you can, perhaps, secure an increased average production per year and acre, but at the cost of quality. Here I mean the quality of timber now produced does not fetch the same price as that imported from abroad. However much we may demonstrate that the timber grown in this country is of as good or even better lasting quality, still the eating of the pudding is the proof thereof. The fact remains as stated above.

I need hardly remind you that, in the case of most estates in this country, cuttings are made at irregular intervals. Sometimes a proprietor prefers his woods to the cash which he can realise from them ; in others, exceptionally large quantities are cut all at once to meet a special demand for money ; and last, but not least, frequently enormous quantities of timber are thrown down by an exceptionally strong gale.

All these things are detrimental to a profitable utilisation of the material. Under such conditions a regular market cannot be developed, nor rational and cheap methods of converting the material be employed. The whole thing is haphazard, and neither the proprietors nor the timber merchants derive the full benefit which the industry is capable of yielding. This state of things can be remedied only by a systematic working of the forests, so that annually the same, or approximately the same, quantity of timber is offered for sale. Timber merchants, knowing this, will make their arrangements accordingly. A regular demand for the produce, and a well-organised trade in home-grown timber, will be developed. Improved means of extracting the timber, better means of communication, and high-class saw-mills will make their appearance, leading to a considerable reduction in the cost of extraction and conversion. In the same degree, an increased surplus is realised, the greater part of which will, following the law of gravitation, find its way into the pockets of the proprietors of the forests.

In order to bring this about, the first and foremost requirement of our forest estates is, then that they should be managed according to well-considered plans of operations, technically called working

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plans, which lay down the cuttings to be made for a series of years, thus leading to the method of a sustained yield. But working plans do more than this, they provide for the systematic and orderly performance of all other work to be attended to, such as the general method of treatment, the execution of regeneration, thinnings, construction of roads, etc., in short, for the whole business connected with forest management.

And this brings me to the next point, namely, the interference caused to an orderly systematic management by violent gales. No doubt this is a great source of annoyance in a country situated like Scotland. Although the forester cannot altogether prevent such disasters, he can do much to reduce their extent, partly by grouping the woods of different ages in a reasonable manner, and partly by mixing shallow-rooted species with deep-rooted ones.

Most strong gales come from a fairly fixed direction; in this country generally from a direction oscillating between north-west and south-west, in so far as deviations are not caused by the configuration of the locality, such as mountain ranges, deep valleys, etc. It is also well known that gales do special damage if they rush into the open front of the wood, or one which has suddenly been too heavily thinned. If, therefore, a cutting has been made by which the western front of an adjoining wood standing on the lee side is exposed, it is as likely as not that the next heavy gale will throw it down. If on the other hand, we arrange the cuttings so that they begin in the east, and proceed gradually towards the west, we avoid offering to the wind specially favourable conditions for causing havoc. The wood at the western edge having grown up gradually under constant exposure to the western gales, will have developed strong edge trees, especially if they have been somewhat heavily thinned during early youth, and they will, in the majority of cases, resist gales. Hence they should not fall under the axe until all the woods behind them have been cut over.

Mixed Woods.—Again, it is highly desirable that shallow-rooted species, like spruce, should be mixed with species which have a firmer hold on the soil. In this respect, I remember a remarkable instance. When I was a forest student I joined an excursion to the Thüringian forest under the guidance of my old teacher, Dr. Gustav Heyer. There we were one day shown an old wood of spruce and silver fir, about 140 years old. On examining the wood we found all the trees in rows running from west to east, and every edge tree on the west was a silver fir. It is well known that nobody thought of planting or sowing in rows 180 years ago in those out-of-the-way places, so that the wood was evidently the result of natural regeneration. Hence the only possible explanation was that the silver firs along the western edge stood as well as the trees behind them; where the edge trees were spruces, they had, in the course of time, been

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blown down, carrying the trees behind with them. Thus the whole wood appeared as if it had been planted or sown in lines. As already stated, the forester cannot prevent all accidents of this class, because sometimes woods are blown down, even if all possible precautions have been taken, especially as gales are occasionally perverse, and blow from the east; but anyone who cares to visit, for instance, the kingdom of Saxony, will be astonished to see what the skill of the forester can do in this respect. The Saxon State forests have, for many years past, been managed on the financial principle, and they yield a revenue far higher than those in any other State known to me. Now, the best paying tree in Saxony is the common spruce, as it yields heavy crops, of which up to 80 per cent. are classed as timber, and which is used for a variety of purposes in construction, and also for the manufacture of paper pulp, an article becoming more and more important to the forester and forest proprietor.

Spruce, as you know, is very liable to be thrown by wind, in fact, more so than almost any other of our forest trees, and yet in Saxony spruce woods flourish. Indeed, the damage done by gales is wonderfully small. This is achieved by managing each forest charge according to a well-considered working plan, which lays down the general grouping of the different age classes, so that no cutting causes an open front to be exposed in the direction from which the strong winds generally blow.

I cannot follow up this subject on the present occasion, but I desire to add that, in my opinion, there are, for British wood managers, no more interesting forests and forest management to be seen than in the hilly parts of Saxony; and if any of you should again go to Germany, do not return without having paid a visit to the forests in the vicinity of Schwarzenberg in the kingdom of Saxony.

Natural versus Artificial Regeneration.

And now there is one more point on which I should like to offer a few remarks before I proceed to forestry education proper, and that is the question of natural *versus* artificial regeneration. You have been told on various occasions, and by various authorities, that you must study natural regeneration, so that you may regenerate your woods without expense and without exposing your soil to the effects of sun and air currents. Indeed, some people have gone so far as to declare that the salvation of the forest industry in this country depends on the introduction of the system of natural regeneration. The question which I should like to ask is, "Have the advocates of this theory not gone a little too far?" In answering the question, I shall begin by telling you that the cleared areas in the splendid spruce woods of Saxony, of which I have just spoken, are nearly all re-stocked by planting, and not by natural regeneration, although it is well known that spruce

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is one of those trees which is easy to regenerate naturally. And you must have seen numerous instances on your visit to North Germany where planting, especially in coniferous woods, has been practised. The fact is that each of the two methods has its advantages and disadvantages, and it depends entirely on the local and special conditions with which you have to deal whether the one or the other is preferable. The principal points for consideration in this respect are the species to be grown, and the conditions of the locality. Where a tender species, like the beech or silver fir, is to be regenerated, which may suffer from frost or drought while young, a shelter-wood over the young crop is indicated. In these cases regeneration is generally effected naturally by the seed shed by the shelter-trees. But even this is not a necessity. The same, and in many cases even better results can be obtained by planting, and especially by sowing under and between the shelter-trees. For it is evident that the seed can be better cared for if placed by the hand of man, and the regeneration is likely to be more even, than if the distribution of seed is left to the accidents of nature. In the latter case sometimes two, three, and more seed-years must be awaited before a full new crop is secured, thus involving a serious loss of time. No doubt this is in some cases compensated for by a rapid increase of the volume and value of the shelter-trees, but this does not occur in all cases. In not a few cases, after having waited for a number of years without obtaining a new crop, or only a partial one, artificial regeneration has, after all, to step in and complete the crop, or even do the whole work. There can be no doubt that the successful conduct of natural regeneration under a shelter-wood requires the highest skill of the forester; and if the regeneration of a mixed wood is in question, the process may justly be called an "art," which only the greatest attention and skill can lead to a successful issue.

In the case of hardy species, especially if they are light-demanding from early youth onward, artificial regeneration is generally indicated, and leads to more satisfactory results than natural regeneration. Amongst this class of trees may be mentioned the larch, birch, Scots pine, and even the Weymouth pine, and in many cases also the spruce.

Then the soil, and specially the climate of a particular locality, have a decided influence upon the choice of method. Where the quality of the soil, and the nature of the climate are unfavourable, a shelter-wood is indicated, so as to prevent a deterioration of the productive factors of the locality, or the springing up of a noxious growth of weeds. Where the climate is favourable, and especially where a too rapid drying up of the soil is not to be feared, as in most parts of this country, artificial regeneration may safely be resorted to. In this respect you will, no doubt, have found a decided difference between North Germany and Scotland. In this

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country I should not hesitate for a single moment to regenerate larch, Scots pine, Weymouth, and even spruce by artificial means.

As to the compararive cost, it is generally asserted that sowing or planting requires a certain outlay, which is not necessary under natural regeneration, but it is only too frequently overlooked that under the latter process much time may be lost, and after all "time is money." Hence it cannot be said off-hand that the one method is cheaper than the other. Do not let me, however, be misunderstood. There are many cases in which I should adopt natural regeneration; all I mean to say is, that there are others, in which artificial renegeration is just as good, and not a few where it is better.

From the above remarks we are justified in concluding that there is no reason why just as good timber as that now imported from abroad should not be grown in this country, provided improved sylvicultural treatment and a systematic working of the forests are introduced.

Our Timber Imports.

The next subject, then, before me is to inquire whether there is a sufficiently large field open to us for extended action. An examination of the tables of imports and exports which are issued annually show that the nett imports represent a sum of money by no means to be despised. Taking, for instance, the returns for the years 1890-94, it will be seen that the average annual imports, including wood-pulp timber, came to 7,600,000 tons, representing a value of £19,000,000, of which sum about four millions went to the colonies and fifteen millions to foreign countries. By going back some years, it will also be seen that the average imports have increased by about £2,000,000 during the last eight years. Here, then, are facts which claim our attention, and we may well ask ourselves, whether, if not not the whole, at any rate, a considerable portion of that timber could not be produced, at paying rates, in this country? A detailed examination of the returns shows that, as far as the climate is concerned, about seventeen millions worth of the timber could be grown at home, leaving about two millions for timber which comes from species which have no chance of thriving in these islands. Of the 17 millions, no less than 14½ millions represent coniferous timber, while the other 2½ millions are made up by oak and other hard woods And what are these conifers? They are—(1) Baltic red pine, or our own Scots pine; (2) Baltic white pine, or the common spruce; (3) American white pine, the bulk of which consists of Weymouth, a tree which, introduced into this country about one hundred years ago, has been proved to be quite at home with us, yielding heavy crops of timber.

All this timber could be grown in these islands, and, as far as Scotland is concerned, the conifers would require special attention,

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But have we the land for the purpose? To produce all the timber mentioned above, we should require at least five million acres. Are they available? A definite answer to this question could only be given after a detailed investigation, taking one county after another. But a general idea may be obtained by looking at the official Agricultural Returns. There we find that there are in the three kingdoms--(1) Waste land not used, about 13½ million acres; (2) mountains and heath lands used for rough grazing, 12½ million acres, making a total of 26 million acres. Of this area about one-half is situated in Scotland. No doubt a fair proportion of the waste lands could be used for afforestation, but it must not be overlooked that the greater part of it is unfit for the purpose. Taking both kinds of land together, I do not hesitate in saying that much more than five million acres are fit for afforestation. At the same time, we must remember that apart from rough grazing, by far the greater portion of the area is used for shooting, at any rate all that part which is fit for planting, and that shooting rents are high. I am told that they run from 6d. to 2s. 6d. and 3s. an acre. Hence these lands cannot be dealt with wholesale up here in the north. The income derived from shooting, including deer forests, is so considerable, that the proprietors are very touchy and suspicious in respect of anything that might affect this important source of income. Still, I am satisfied that, under proper arrangements, a considerable portion of the lands in question could be planted without interfering to an appreciable degree with shooting rents. In the case of deer forests especially, I believe that afforestation of the lower portions of the area would be likely to increase their value in this respect, while gradually an increasing revenue from the planted areas would be secured.

But I go a step further, by saying that in all cases where a proprietor is the owner of both land under wood and of waste land fit for planting, he can put a certain portion of the latter under forest without sacrificing a single shilling of his present income, while building up a higher rental in the future. I think it is worth my while explaining this by an example:—

Supposing a proprietor has 100 acres of woods, with a regular distribution of age gradations from 1 year up to 100 years old. In the ordinary way he would cut every year 1 acre of 100 years old wood, which would give him say, £75 income. Supposing he has now another 100 acres of waste land, which brings him 3s. an acre a year from grazing or shooting, or £15 a year, and he proposed to put it under wood in the course of 25 years; he would have to spend £3 an acre for planting or £12 a year. Let us also assume he has to sacrifice his grazing and shooting income at once over the whole area, so that he would have to find £27 every year. This he would find by cutting every year about 1½ acre of mature wood; in other words he would, during the 25 years, cut about 9 acres more than the ordinary area. In this way he would gradually press down his rotation from 100 to 91

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years. On the other hand, he would have another 100 acres planted with young woods ranging from 1 to 25 years old. Then as the thinnings begin to yield some return, he would gradually reduce his cuttings of mature wood until he has raised the rotation again to 100 years, and from that moment he would enjoy a considerably enhanced income, because he would then cut over 2 acres every year, thus realising £135 a year instead of the previous £75. You will observe that I have based my example upon unfavourable conditions, because the owner need not lose the grazing or shooting rents all at once over the whole 100 acres. In this way a scheme could be worked out for every estate, according to its proper conditions.

Does it Pay to Plant?

But we must not forget to ask the question—Would it pay to plant? Great difficulty is experienced in getting hold of reliable data regarding the receipts and expenses of British woodlands. I have succeeded in securing these in a few instances, and they, coupled with my personal experience, as a practical wood manager, have enabled me to show that, here in the north, land which is capable of producing on an average 1½ ton of coniferous timber per acre annually, can be profitably afforested if it does not yield an annual soil rental of more than 7s 6d. per acre. The calculation is made with 2½ per cent. compound interest throughout and on the supposition that the thinnings are sold for pit props, and the final crop for construction, both at current rates. I shall of course, not weary you with further details of this question, but assure you that the calculation has been based on moderate expectations.

In this connection I should like to give you a few figures regarding the Saxon forests which I have already mentioned to you. The forests of Schwarzenberg have an area of 46,000 acres and are situated from 1000 to 2500 feet above sea-level. The annual yield from them is 3,640,000 cubic feet of wood of all kinds. Of this 3,045,000 cubic feet are timber, equivalent to 51 cubic feet English measure, by the quarter girth, per acre over the 46,000 acres of their area. The total receipts are £70,488, and the expenses are £24,239, leaving a net revenue of 20*s*. 1*d*. per acre. If you calculate out the price, you will find that it is not a high price they received for their timber. The woods are mostly of spruce, the trees having beautiful clean, cylindrical stems, 60 to 75 feet in height; but you will find that they only realise 4½*d*. per cubic foot In Marienburg the price was a little better—the nett revenue being 27*s*. per acre.

It seems to me that, taking all these matters into consideration, as well as the fact that large and suitable areas are available for planting in Britain, a large sum of money might be kept in this country which is at present sent out of it for the commoner

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kinds of timber, and that a strong case can be made out for extended action as regards the afforestation of waste lands in the country.

Who is to Provide Forestry Education?

Supposing now that we are all at one as to the need of improved forestry education, the first question is—Who is to provide it, whereby a staff of wood managers would gradually be educated, who are well versed in modern economic forest management?

The efforts of this Society and others interested in the matter have, up to date, been only partially successful, and the demand has gone forth of late that the State should do something to further the business. A deputation of this Society had, as you are aware, an interview some time ago with Mr. Long, the President of the Board of Agriculture, and the latter promised to see what he could do. This opens a question about which I should like to say a few words.

The State, as such, has, no doubt, duties to perform in respect of forestry, but its action must be limited by what is wanted in the interests and for the welfare of the nation as a whole. The nature and extent of the measures which the State should take in this respect depend chiefly on (1) the special requirements of the country; and (2) the nature of the proprietorship of the forests.

Where forests are required for their indirect effects, or where the means of import and of distribution over the country are deficient, the State might be called upon to interfere. But these cases do not apply to Great Britain and Ireland, at any rate, not at present. Generally speaking, these islands do not require forests for climate or similar reasons, and owing to their richness of coal, their sea-bound condition and extensive railway system, all parts of the country can be easily supplied from abroad. In this respect, then, State action could hardly be justified, especially in a country like this, where free trade and private enterprise are the very foundations of national life.

Referring now to the second point, I must mention that apart from about 100,000 acres of Crown forest lands, situated almost entirely in the southern half of England, there are no State forests. On the other hand, we have about 2,700,000 acres of private forests, and almost the whole of the 26,000,000 acres of land of which I spoke a few minutes ago belonging to private parties and not to the State. Hence it is to the proprietors that we must look for assistance in the first place, though the State should give a helping hand.

In this respect the action of Continental countries has sometimes been misunderstood. We have often seen it stated that France has two forest schools, and Germany some ten; but then the former country possesses upwards of 2,000,000 acres of State

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forests, and upwards of 4,000,000 acres of forests belonging to communes, which are, by law, under the management of Government forest officers. Germany has some 11,000,000 acres of State forests, and about 6,000,000 acres of communal forests, managed by State forest officers. These forests represent a capital value of several hundred millions, and the revenue derived from them forms an important item in the State budget. It is, therefore, but natural that in these countries the Government should take care to give their forest employés the highest possible training in their profession, it having been recognised for a long time past that a high class training of the forest managers means a high return from the forests,

The Government of India, as you are aware, has for the last thirty years acted on the same principle, thanks to the enlightened views pressed upon that Gorvenment by Sir D. Brandis. That Government is the proprietor of more than 100,000,000 acres of State forests; and it has established two forest schools, one at Coopers Hill for the training of the European part of the staff, another at Dehra Dun, chiefly for the training of natives of India.

And yet instances are not wanting where private enterprise has done as well, and I cannot do better than refer you to the measures taken by the private forest proprietors of Bohemia and Moravia in Austria, who established the following forest schools:—

(1) Weissmasser, in 1855, by the Bohemian Forestry Society and taken over in 1862 by an Association of Landed Proprietors.

Graf Waldstein, Wartenberg, attached an area of 3000 acres of forest to the School for the practical instruction of the students.

(2) Eulenburg, in 1852, by the Moravian-Silesian Forestry Society.

(3) Lemberg, a similar institution, existing since 1874.

All three train forest managers for private woodlands.

(1) and (2) are entirely self-supporting; (3) has an annual grant from the State.

The above facts indicate that, as far as this country is concerned, we can expect only limited assistance from the State. Considering the large imports of timber, and a certain amount of uncertainty regarding future supplies, the State's action might reasonably be expected in the following four directions:—

(1) Assistance in the equipment of forest schools and training ground

(2) Management of, at any rate, a number of Crown forests on systematic economic principles.

(3) Advances at moderate interest (2½ per cent.) to landed proprietors who are desirous of planting.

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(4) In some cases—for instance, where additional work is wanted in congested districts—surplus areas might be acquired and put under forest.

All the same time, we cannot close our eyes to the fact, that as the proprietors of forests are the people most interested in the systematic management of their woodlands, it rests, in the first place with them to afford the means for a proper education of their agents, if they really want it, though, of course, the State will do well to help.

Assuming this to be the case, why should we not be able to do as much as has been done, for instance, in Bohemia and Moravia? I do not expect any landed proprietor in this country to make a present of a large tract of Forest land, nor is this necessary; but would it be too much to expect that the proprietors should, between them, provide the means, towards the cost of forestry education in this country? Supposing, for the sake of argument, they determined to take up the matter in real earnest and to contribute *one* penny per acre of actual woodland annually, say for the next ten years, we should have for Scotland alone a sum of £3,600 a year, as there are some 900,000 acres of woods. And if only one-half of the proprietors joined such an association it would still have about £1,800 annually at it disposal, a sum quite sufficient to pay for the desired forestry education, apart from any help which the State may be willing to afford. Or if they only gave ¼d. per acre, it would still be £900 a year. I am sure there is nothing so very startling in these proposals, which, after all, run on the same lines as those adopted in many other cases in this country. At any rate, they are thoroughly in accordance with the foundations of national life in Britain.

How is Forestry Education to be Arranged?

Assuming, then, that the necessary funds for a proper start became available. the next question would be—How the course of education should be arranged? Perhaps the best way of explaining my views on this point will be tell you shortly what we have done and are now doing at Coopers Hill College, and then to indicate my view as to what course should, in my opinion be followed to suit the requirements of this country.

More than thirty years ago, when Sir D. Brandis arranged for the education of candidates for the Indian Forest Department he informed the home authorities that as there were no forests in Britain managed on systematic economic principles, the training must be done on the continent. He arranged accordingly, that one-half of the candidates should be sent to France, and the other half to Germany. At the same time he suggested that some of the English Crown forests should be taken under systematic management, so that they might, in course of time, become available as training grounds for British forest students. Of the latter suggestion no notice was taken,

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In the year 1883, when the Secretary of State for India had decided to start forestry education at Coopers Hill College, I induced the Government of India, in my capacity as Inspector General of Forests to the Government, to point out to the home authorities that, if forestry education in Britain were to become a living thing, the first step to be taken should be to place the principal Crown forests under systematic economic management. In making this proposal, both Sir D. Brandis and myself had in our minds' eye the idea that such a step would be beneficial, not only for the candidates of the Indian Forest Department, but also for students who wished to devote themselves to the management of forests in this country and in the colonies. However, for the second time, no notice was taken of the proposal, and a start was ordered to be made at Coopers Hill without proper training grounds in this country. When I was subsequently deputed to organise the forestry branch at Coopers Hill College, I had no choice but to propose that our students should go to the Continent for the principal parts of their practical training. Gradually, the arrangements were perfected, and they are now as follows :—

Arrangements at Coopers Hill.

1. The students join the College in September, and remain under tuition for three years, divided into nine terms.

2. During the first seven terms they study at the College, being instructed in the auxiliary sciences, including Botany, and in the theory of forestry. During this time they visit all interesting forests in the vicinity of the College, one day a week being set aside for this purpose, and at the close of the first year they are taken for a fortnight to Brittany, principally to study the treatment of beech and oak woods, partly pure, but chiefly mixed with each other. In this way we enable the students to follow and understand the study of the theory of forestry. At the end of seven terms, the students are sent to Germany and placed in batches of two, with specially selected Prussian forest officers, under whom they work for five months, so as to see and learn to understand all the operations carried on in a well-arranged and well-managed forest district. Then they are all brought together, and under the guidance, until lately of Sir D. Brandis, and now of myself, they visit a selected number of specially interesting forest districts in South Germany. After that they are considered fit to be sent to India, and to enter the forest service of that country.

In arranging this course of study, we were guided by the following considerations :—(1) Theoretical and practical training

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in forestry must go hand in hand; (2) the student must become thoroughly acquainted with the work in a systematically managed forest district; (3) the student must study varying conditions, over and above those found in any one district, so as to acquire a sufficiently ripe judgment, which will enable him to decide on the correct measures to be taken in any conditions which he may meet with subsequently in his work.

Before applying what I have said to the case of Scotland, I must clear the ground a little more. The demand for better forestry education has gone forth, but I have nowhere seen it clearly stated what is really wanted. There are a large number of foresters in Scotland who look after the woods on estates of varying extent. Some proprietors have only a few hundred acres, or even less, while others own areas up to many thousands of acres. The former employ a forester or woodman, whom they pay hardly more than any untrained industrious labourer can earn; and even in the case of the latter, the emoluments of their wood managers reach only a very moderate figure. Now, every labourer is worthy of his hire, and before a young man makes up his mind to devote several years of his life, and a not inconsiderable amount of cash, in acquiring a thorough knowledge of a profession, he must see his way towards obtaining afterwards a position and emoluments which make it worth his while to proceed. No man in his senses would go through a systematic course of study if all he could look forward to at the end of it, were a salary of say £70 a year. But then a proprietor will say—How can I afford to give more, if I have only a small area of wood to be looked after? The fact is that we require two distinct classes of foresters, the ordinary working forester, and the wood manager, or forest expert, if you like the term better. The former would be in charge of the ordinary current works, while the latter lays down the method of treatment, and supervises the execution of the work. Every proprietor would have one or a number of working foresters, according to the size of his woods, and a wood manager or a share of one. If his estate is of sufficient extent he will engage his own wood manager, and if he owns only a small area, he will secure the occasional services of one. There are endless examples where a land agent manages a number of estates, and there is no reason, as far as I can see, why the same should not be the case as regards wood managers. In that case they would secure an income commensurate with the sacrifices which they have made in educating themselves.

The working forester would be a practically trained man, who need not necessarily, at any rate not at present, visit a forest school, unless he desires to work himself up to the position of a wood manager. The future employés of the latter class require superior training. Unless you keep this distinction clearly in view, all your attempts are likely to lead to disappointment.

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On looking over what has been done up to date, I find that there are three distinct means of acquiring a theoretical knowledge of forestry – (1) The training of working foresters at the Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh; (2) the lectures given in connection with the Department of Agriculture of the University of Edinburgh; and (3) those given in the Edinburgh School of Rural Economy. Over and above, I see it stated that it is intended to start forestry instruction at various other places.

Although I have considerable hesitation in expressing an opinion, owing to my incomplete knowledge of the local conditions, still as an outsider, I cannot help thinking that energy and money are likely to be wasted by running on too many lines all at once. For some time to come your chief energies should, in my humble opinion, be directed to the education of the future wood managers, while the working foresters will, for the present at any rate, do well to seek their training in well-managed forests.

In my opinion, you would do better if you, at the start, were to concentrate operations, so as to make *one* definite scheme a reality, and that scheme should be to perfect the education of your future wood managers or under whatever title they appear upon the scene. In other words I should advocate one centre of instruction, consisting of (1) theoretical instruction in connection with a university or agricultural college, where instruction in the auxiliary sciences is already provided; (2) woodlands where the practical instruction can be imparted, because in forestry theory and practice must go hand in hand.

As regards the first point,—theoretical instruction,—a beginning has been made in this very city, where my friend Colonel Bailey is delivering lectures on forestry. The arrangement needs only further development, and to be put on a proper footing, so as to bring the subject of forestry, as regards its importance, on a par with other branches of learning.

The difficulties are much greater in coming to the practical training, *viz.*, the provision of forest districts in which the practical part of the instruction can be conducted. To meet this difficulty, some members of this Society have proposed to start a model forest under the auspices of a joint-stock company. Now this is a novel idea, which at first sight may recommend itself to some people, but for myself, I confess I do not think much of it for several reasons. For one thing, the buying of a tract of land and planting it up would be equivalent to postponing progress for about another generation, during which time not much more could be learned in it, except what can be seen in hundreds of the forest estates existing in this country. For I need hardly point out to you that, as far as planting operations are concerned, our Scottish foresters may proudly enter the arena, never minding whom they meet therein. Indeed, in this respect, Continental foresters may learn a good deal by coming to Scotland.

For immediate use we require something more, and that is a

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considerable area of actually existing forests, which can at once be placed under systematic management and regular sustained working. There is no necessity that these should at once be put into apple-pie order. All that is wanted is that a plan of operations, or a so-called working plan, should be drawn up for each, under which the forest (while safeguarding the interests of the proprietor) is gradually, and in the course of a number of years, led over into a model forest. There would be an annual return at once, which would gradually increase to the highest possible yield which could reasonably be expected from the area. Operations like those involved in such a conversion, would be the very thing for the instruction of students, and this all the more, as they would, when entering upon independent activity, in all probability have to introduce and conduct similar operations. Any forest area which is fairly stocked would therefore do for our purpose, provided it offers a sufficient variety of conditions. For the latter reason it would be best to have several forests, situated in different parts of the country. Now-a-days all parts are easily accessible, so that those estates could be conveniently reached, but it would be a distinct advantage if one of them was sufficiently close to the place where the theoretical instruction is given, so that it can be visited by the students in the course of a day, while at the others the students would pass through a regular apprenticeship.

Where are these Forest Estates to be Found?

As continuity of action, extending over a long period of time is required, nothing would be more proper than that the State should take up the matter; Crown forests should be used for the purpose. There are something like 100,000 acres of forests under the management of Her Majesty's Commissioners of Woods and Forests, who act under the control of the Lords of the Treasury. These forests are the property of the Crown, and they are leased to the State during Her Majesty's life. Whatever arrangements may be made hereafter, they represent areas in which the temporary wishes or necessities of the owner are not likely to interfere with the management, and they are therefore eminently fitted for continued systematic management. Unfortunately, none of these forests are situated in Scotland, but if we look at Great Britain as a whole, I think a renewed effort should be made to bring the principal Crown forests, in so far as they do not serve as Royal shooting grounds, under systematic economic management. I am inclined to think that the Commissioners of Woods and Forests would not be unwilling to consider any proposals in this respect, if it is made clear to them that systematic economic management does not mean cutting the woods down, but, on the contrary, leading them over into a condition in which they will give an increased yield and revenue.

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There being no State forests in Scotland, I think the Government would not go out of its way if it were to buy an estate, a considerable proportion of which is already under wood, and to affiliate it with the Forestry School at the University of Edinburgh, with a duly qualified wood manager, in residence on the spot. This wood manager, under the advice of the Lecturer on Forestry and a duly constituted committee of control, would have to draw up a working plan of the area, giving full details of the objects to be aimed at, and the manner in which they will be realised. This area could at once be utilised for the practical illustration of many of the theories set fourth in the lecture-room, and it would also afford opportunty for the training of working foresters. Proposals for the establishment of such a training ground are, I understand, now before the President of the Board of Agriculture, and I trust he will see his way towards providing the means for the realisation.

But can we not achieve something more; could we not persuade a few, or even one, of the great landed proprietors of this country to make the experiment of placing their forests under systematic economic management? Let me assure them they need not fear for the æsthetic beauty of the estates. True forestry is not barbarous; on the contrary, the proprietors would soon find that their estates would be just as beautiful as before, besides improving in yield capacity and additional cash in their pockets. Nor need forestry interfere with the income from shooting, at least not more than what would be fully covered by additional receipts derived from the sale of forest produced. Of course we must not forget that this is a century which marches ahead at a quick pace, while forestry is an industry which proceeds but slowly. Haste has no place in forestry. Still there is no reason whatever to doubt, as I have already shown, that an estate can be subjected to systematic forest management without curtailing the revenue hitherto derived from it, while giving promise of a considerably higher revenue in the future. At the outset, occasional visits to suitable Continental districts would probably be necessary, but they may be reduced in the same degree as the systematic management of the home estates improves, until they would become unnecessary. The sooner the latter stage is arrived at the better, because, apart from political considerations, these visits are a source of great inconvenience and expense.

And now, gentlemen, I fear I have kept you long enough. The subject of forestry education is one in which I take a great interest and I only trust that the realisation of your aims in this respect may be accomplished at an early date. National and private interests of considerable magnitude are involved in their realisation, which I hope will not be put back for another generation.

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VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

May, 4th, 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK. The deliveries for the first four months of this year amount to 7,475 loads as compared with 6,756 loads in that period of 1887, but for April, 1898 they have only been 1,330 loads against 1,668 loads in April, 1897. There has been very little change in the market, so far as actual quotations go, but the position ahead is very strong in the face of a widely spreading demand acting on a very inopportune curtailment of supplies. For floating cargoes accordingly business has been done during the month at again a marked increase on the highest previous quotations :—

ROSEWOOD. EAST INDIA. The demand is good and sound sizeable logs sell well, but the consumption is not large.

SATINWOOD. EAST INDIA. Sells slowly, and there is sufficient stock,

EBONY. EAST INDIA. Only larger sound wood. of good colour, should be shipped.

PRICE CURRENT

Indian Teak	per load	£9	to	£14
Rosewood	ton	£9	to	£10
Satinwood	s. ft.	5d.	to	12d.
Ebony	ton	£6	to	£8

Denny, Mott & Dickson's Wood Market Report.

LONDON, 2ND MAY, 1898.

TEAK.—The deliveries last month from the Docks in London were 1,342 loads as against 1,585 loads for the corresponding month of last year ; 360 loads were landed during the month and the Dock stocks now stand as follows :—

11,885	Loads	of Logs,	as against	5,709	Loads	at the same date last year
2,933	,,	Planks	,,	1,491	,,	,, ,,
14	,,	Blocks	,,	24	,,	,, ,,
Total 14,832	Loads			7,224	Loads	,, ,,

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The deliveries were fairly satisfactory for a month broken up by the Easter holidays, and with business generally somewhat unsettled by the outbreak of war between the United States and Spain. Prices, however, have unavoidably advanced owing to the small supplies in view, though inferior wood has not shared in the rise, as the demand is mainly for first-class Ship-building and Railway Coach-building, in which, quality rather than price, is the first consideration.

Floating business has been, of necessity, there being practically no cargoes to sell.

Prices for fresh shipments continue to rise both at Rangoon and Moulmein, whilst Bangkok supplies are exhausted, even the second-class wood fetching unprecedented rates for Eastern consumption, which serves to protect the European Market from further speculative shipments of bad wood, so often resulting from short supplies of timber of good quality at the shipping ports.

Business during the past month was of a further broken nature owing to the Easter holidays; and the volume of trade somewhat affected by the outbreak of the war between the United States and Spain, which has cast a chill over business generally, however it may for a time benefit certain branches of the timber trade.

MARKET RATES FOR PRODUCTS.

Tropical Agriculturist, May 1898.

Cardamoms	per lb.	3s. 2d.	to	2s. 6d.
Croton Seeds	„ cwt.	50s.	to	61s.
Cutch	„ „	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic, Madras	„ „	27s. 6d.	to	35s.
„ Kino	„ „	12s. 6d.	to	15s.
India rubber, Assam	„ lb.	2s. 4d.	to	2s. 11½d.
„ Burma	„ „	2s. 3d.	to	2s. 11 d.
Myrabolams, Madras	„ cwt.	4s. 6d.	to	5s.
„ Bombay	„ „	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
„ Jubbulpore	„ „	4s.	to	7s.
„ Calcutta	„ „	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	„ „	7s.	to	7s. 6d.
Oil, Lemon Grass	„ lb.	5d.		
Sandalwood, Logs	„ ton.	£30	to	£50.
„ Chips	„ „	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood	„ „	£	to	£
Seed lac	„ cwt.	60s.	to	70s.
Tamarinds	„ „	4s.	to	6s.

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VOL. XXIV]

THE

INDIAN FORESTER

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRA

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN

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ERRATUM.

MARCH No., 1898.

p. xxxiii, line 14 *for* '3rd' *read* '2nd.'

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THE
INDIAN FORESTER.

Vol. XXIV.] July, 1898. [No. 7.

The Belgian Forest Exhibition and the Forest Service.

In 1831 the Belgian Forests were under the Department of Registration. The few Forest officers employed had no authority of their own, but were entirely under the orders of Revenue officers whose only idea of working a forest was to cut every stick they could, or sell the ground outright. In this way more than a third of the State Forests were alienated for ever. It would be interesting to compare the Belgian and Indian Forest Histories, and to explain how one Indian Province has just practically thrown away the results of 25 years Conservancy over probably a fourth of its total forest area, alleging that its Chief Conservator was the only person who saw any good in conservancy. It does not state that its Chief Conservator was the only Forest Officer consulted, and that his opinion is worth more than that of all the rest combined. But we refrain from such comparisons. In 1879 there was a Forest Congress at Liège, which resulted in adopting the claim to Forest Autonomy. In 1884, the recently established Forest Administration ceased to be connected with Finance, and was conjoined with Agriculture. A few years later, the Department became entirely independent under a Director, and in 1893 the "Conseil Supérieur" was added, which consists of at least 24 members representing different districts, and competent to advise on all forest questions. In 1895, the game and fishery laws were brought under Forest, and in 1896 a special "Research Bureau" was established. Something similar has been a crying want in India for years. The total area of the public forest in Belgium is less than half a million acres, and of these only some 62,000 belong to the State. Private persons, however, own 1½ million acres, or about $\frac{1}{6}$th of the whole country. The Ranges average about 16,000 acres, the Divisions about 52,000.

From 1876 to 1893, the Belgium Foresters were trained at Nancy or Tharandt, but now they go through a three years course in their own country, after passing the Engineering College of Gembloux or Louvain. In drawing up the programme of the Brussels Exhibition of 1897, Forestry was entirely forgotten, and

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the error was only repaired in March, 1896, which was exceedingly late to do anything, but the Belgian Foresters and their friends buckled to with such ardour, that they were able to build a châlet and to fill it with a most complete collection for the instruction of the public. Even as one Julius Cesar once wrote "of all these old cocks, the Belgians are the strongest." The illustrated catalogue of 700 pages is a veritable Cyclopædia of everything pertaining to forests, hunting, fishing, shooting, &c. It causes serious philological reflections when one considers that a "chevalier de la gaule" (gallia, gallus,) does not mean a gallant Cock-o'the-north of Belgium, but an angler, and that the most *fruit*-ful use of a *canapé* is to sit down on it with a *canne a pêche*. One point, interesting and useful together, was the exhibition of noxious animals and insects, not only dead and gone lofty, bnt actually carrying on their nefarious trades under the eyes of the public. The only one not exhibited was that objectionable beast which sets fire to the forests in a degree exactly proportionate to the indulgences allowed to it, but that beast is not indigenous in Belgium. The really striking and important part of the Exhibition was, neither the collections, nor the conferences, but the genuine public and official recognition of Forests, of their utility, and of the necessity of having them properly managed by those competent to do so, and kept clear of outside political intrigues or necessities.

In Belgium, as in other civilised countries, the forests are protected, and really allowed and intended to be protected, not only against fires and thieves, grubs and fungi, but even against the spendthrift son who would not hesitate to sacrifice the work of a century for an hour's pleasure. The final destination of the collections will be to form a forest Museum, open to all, not only for scientific reference, but for the popularisation of sylviculture and the spreading abroad of a general appreciation of its benefits. Belgium has an extremely dense population and vast commerce. It consumes annually 1,700,000 metres cubes of wood. As it produces only 1000,000 metre cubes, it has to import the balance at a cost of some 70,000,000 francs, a very heavy tax to pay annually to foreigners.

Belgium, therefore, is taking every step possible to encourage and preserve, and create.

Agriculture is struggling with bad times in Belgium as elsewhere, but the Belgians are wise, and instead of encouraging the "extension of cultivation," an Indian fetish, and the consequent increase of an already crowded population on a poor soil, they are encouraging the creation of forests. So far from the Forest officer being looked upon with jealousy and suspicion, it is to him that people resort for friendly advice and assistance. All this dates from the day the administration was freed from the control of other Departments. An immence amount of work is being done towards the improvement of the State Forests. A considerable sum is set apart every year by the State, for the acquisition of

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waste lands or ruined forests and it pays one-third of the cost of planting up large areas of village waste for the benefit of the communes concerned. There is a Central Society of Forestry consisting of 900 members belonging to all classes, from the king and his senators, down to small landowners and their agents and even tradesmen. The Society endeavours to spread a due understading of the objects and benefits of sylviculture by means of a Journal, by public conferences, and forest expeditions, and by free advice. In short, the Belgian Government finds political advantage in popularising it in every possible way.

Q.

Equilibrium between the Crown and the Roots of Trees.

On this subject M. P. Fossier has a useful article in the *Revue des Eaux et Forêts* for May last, which should be read in connection with the important researches of M. Henry on the covering of the soil, and of MM. Bartet, Watier, and others, which have been lately discussed in the *Indian Forester*. It is pointed out that the increment is not affected only by the covering and quality of the soil, but that in order to obtain a just appreciation of the facts, it is necessary to look at the tree from head to foot. Doctors are fond of certifying, for due consideration received, that one teaspoonful of Jones' Mustardine contains more nutriment than 14 lbs. of best mutton, but they do not certify, as they would, if Mr. Jones desired it, that this redundancy of nutriment is nearly all wasted because of the inability of the consumer to assimilate it. So with a tree, it is no use burying the roots in rich and concentrated food, unless the other organs of the tree are able to work at a high enough pressure to utilise it. If the man's other organs are feeble, or his surroundings uncomfortable, or his nature discontented, he simply gets indigestion. Trees are not always contented with their surroundings, and though there is no proof that they suffer from any active kind of indigestion so far as *quantity* is concerned, yet the nutriment, for all the good it does, might as beneficially be passed through a sieve as through their tissues.

M. Bartet's experiments, during the 30 years cycle in the life of a standard over coppice showed that in spite of the continual increase in the covering of the soil, the thickness of the annual rings and ultimately their area, becomes less and less. This fact has been, somewhat unnecessarily, a stumbling block to some. As M. Fossier neatly puts it, there is nothing like the open air to give one an appetite, and without appetite there is poor digestion. It is evident that a standard over coppice has, at the

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end of the 30 years coppice-cycle, much less of the open air, and consequently much less reason to be contented with its surroundings, than it had at the beginning, when the coppice had just been cut. It has less room, less light and heat, its leaves are fewer and work less actively, its lower branches suppressed. It is thus quite natural that although the tree continually becomes larger, yet the increments may remains stationary or even diminish. Take a tree for instance, growing in close canopy. Its crown, its root space, its light, are approximately constant, and the increment is therefore nearly constant in volume. But as this tree increases in size, the constant increment is being spread over larger and larger areas, consequently the annual ring must be thinner, and it may even appear, incorrectly, that the tree is on its decline.

There is a constant natural tendency, necessarily so, towards the establishment and maintenance of equilibrium between the crown and the roots. When a coppice is cut, the crowns of the standards suddenly find available an almost unlimited supply of light and heat. The air becomes drier and is more in movement. All these conditions provoke the buds to develop and the leaves to assume their utmost activity in transforming the raw sap received from the roots into wood. The consequence is a great development of the crown, as shown by M. Watier's experiments published in France in October, November, 1896. But the activity of the crown provokes and necessitates a corresponding activity of the roots, strictly in proportion. The equilibrium is being annually and incessantly disturbed and re-established throughout the life of the tree, only at a coppice felling the disturbance is great and sudden. There is nothing to prevent the expansion of the crowns, except the capacity of the root system, and the roots are also able to develop and spread because the roots of the stems that have been cut or coppiced are no longer in a condition to compete with them, having few or no leaves to second their efforts. In the case of these stumps, the equilibrium has been absolutely destroyed, and it requires some years before they are at all in a condition to resume the struggle. It is thus clearly explained how, in spite of the impoverishment of the soil caused by the felling, the vegetation of the standards is actually at this period superior to what it is when the soil has recovered its best qualities, how it is in fact, as recorded by M. Bartet, that the growth of the standards is in *inverse* proportion to the quality of the soil in a coppice.

The period, during which the standards are absolute and undisputed masters of the situation, varies with the species, locality, &c., and can be ascertained by every forester for himself. Merely as an example, may be quoted the forest of Montdieu, in the Ardennes. Here, the period is, for oak, 7 or 8 years, for soft woods, 8 or 10 years, for beech and hornbeam 5 or 6 years. There are oaks in this forest which at the age of 100 years attain a girth of 3 metres and contain 20 to 22 cubic metres of useful

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timber. One of these trees, of moderate size, was measured. Its girth was 230 centimetres at breast high, and it contained 15 cubic metres of useful timber. Its age was 103 years, during which period it had been isolated 3 times. The mean radii measured at the stump were: at the first isolation, when it was 18 years old, 6 centimetres; at the second isolation, when it was 43 years old, 13 centimetres; at the third isolation, at 73 years old, 26 centimetres; and when cut at the age of 103 years, 45 centimetres. The following table shows the thickness and area of the annual rings, by periods of 5, 7, and 8 years these being the periods for which the variation was obvious on the stumps.

Period.	Thickness of annual ring, millimetres.	Area of annual ring of square centimetres.
age 14 to 18 years	5·4	15·78
„ 19—23 „	9·4	49·32
„ 24—28 „	5·2	34·92
37—43	6·4	64·34
44—50	8·3	82·77
51—56	5·7	74·68
66—73	6·5	83·78
74—81	9·0	179·16
82—89	6·1	137·19

Why does this period of rapid growth, cease almost as rapidly as it began? Why does the growth, so to speak, flare up and then die down to the normal and average level?

M. Guinier says that "in a given climate, the amount of light "is one of the factors of the soil-fertility." After the period of 5—10 years, the cover being again nearly complete, little light can reach the soil, the fertility of which consequently reverts to its normal level. M. Mathey says that "when a tree is freed "from the surrounding canopy, it first spreads its branches, and "then develops quantities of flowers and fruit. These require "considerable physiological efforts and absorb large quantities of "nutriment, leaving little for the increment in wood."

M. Fossier thinks that an additional reason may be found. After the felling, the accumulated richness of the soil is rapidly used up, the fallen leaves decompose more rapidly and are absorbed, while the newly falling leaves, though continually increasing in quantity, cannot, as the cover increases, decompose so rapidly as before. Hence, though the covering of the soil becomes thicker, it is in a less rapidly assimilable state. Probably all three causes have their share in the result.

F. GLEADOW.

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II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

Income Tax in England.

RECLAIMING INCOME TAX.

SIR.

I send you the following Extract from "Home Chat" for April 2nd, 1898.

"It is a well-known fact that large numbers of people..... are now paying Income Tax who ought to be exempt, and that 'innumerable others are charged a larger amount than they are 'really liable for.

'Fnrther, there are many.....who do not know they are 'paying Income Tax at all, owing to its being deducted from their 'dividends (even when stated to be free of Income Tax) rents, 'annuities, pensions, &c., before they reach them, and not collected 'from them directly.

* * * * *

THE AMOUNT RECLAIMABLE.

'Let us consider the provisions of the Income Tax Acts as 'they at present stand. The amount payable is 8d. in the pound. 'Incomes of £160 and under are entirely exempt. Those over '£160 but not exceeding £400, are entitled to an abatement on '£160—that is, £160 is allowed to go free of tax; and those not 'exceeding £500 are allowed £100 free.

* * * * *

'A claim (for refund) can be made not only for the present 'year, but for the *three preceding years*, if an annual claim has 'not hitherto been made.

* * * * *

'The Government financial year ends on April 5th. A claim 'in respect of the year 1897-98 can be sent in any time after the '5th April, 1898, and should include all income received between 'that date and previous 5th April.

'Incomes from all sources (except gifts and voluntary al- 'lowances) has to be declared, whether tax has been deducted or 'not. People who own the house they live in must include the 'amount at which it is assessed as part of their income, and the 'the tax-collector's receipt will be the voucher.

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'Certificates of deduction (or vouchers) are required for every 'item of tax reclaimed, except that deducted from Government 'Securities or other Stocks which are inscribed in the books of 'the Bank of England."

* * * * *

The above facts may be of use to some officers on furlough in England. The India Office Pay Warrants seem to invariably suppose the officer to have income exceeding £500, and the discovery of his possible exemptions is left to himself to make.

Another point is that Life Insurance Policies are not taxable, either in England or India. The mode of adjustment is to affix the Insurance office's receipt for the premium paid during the past year to the officer's salary bill for March, and make the recovery in that bill.

"_____"

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Estimate of Forest Revenue and Expenditure for 1898-99.

	Revenue.			Expenditure.		
	Imperial.	Provincial	Total.	Imperial.	Provincial	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
India General :—						
Andamans ..	2,19,000	..	2,19,000	1,62,000	..	1,62,000
Baluchistan ..	13,000	..	13,000	30,000	..	30,000
Ajmere ..	15,060	..	15,000	17,000	..	17,000
Coorg ..	1,68,000	..	1,68,000	91,000	..	91,000
Forest School ..	3,000	..	3.000	71,000	..	71,000
,, Survey ..	..	..	..	34,000	..	34,000
Indore ..	3,000	..	3,000	2,000	..	2,000
Bangalore ..	15,000	..	15,000	1,000	..	1,000
General Direction ..	..	..	..	77,000	..	77,000
Total India General	4,36,000	..	4,36,000	4,85,000	..	4,85,000
Central Provinces ..	5,00,000	5,00,000	10,00,000	4,75.000	4,75,000	9.50,000
Burma ..	29,35,000	29,35,000	58,70.000	11,70,000	11,70,000	23,40 000
Assam ..	2,70,000	2,700,000	5,40,000	1,66,000	1.67,000	3,33,000
Bengal ..	4,64,000	4,64,000	9,28,000	2,78,000	2,77,000	5,55,000
North-Western Provinces and Oudh ..	8,00,000	8,00,000	16 00,000	5,14,000	5,13,000	10,27,000
Punjab ..	6,83,000	6,83,000	13,66,000	4,47,000	4,47,000	8,94,000
Madras ..	11,76,000	11,76,000	23 52,000	8,50,000	8,50,000	17,00,000
Bombay ..	16,32,000	16,32,000	32.64,000	10,63,000	10,63,000	21,26,000
Total India ..	88,96,000	84,60.000	1,73,56,000	54,48,000	49,62,000	1,04,10,000
England ..	..	..	..	61,000	..	61,000
Exchange ..	..	..	..	34,000	..	34,000
GRAND TOTAL ..	88,96,000	84,60,000	1,73,56,000	55,43,000	49,62,000	1,05,05,000

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Report on some Indian Gums.

The gums which have been examined are described in a letter from Dr George Watt to Mr. Royle, dated the 2nd June 1896, which enclosed a copy of a Memorandum, No. 286, dated 29th June 1895, from Mr. Gamble. Conservator of Forests, School Circle, North-Western Provincesand Oudh, on the subject. Mr. Gamble stated that the local demand for the following gums. which are procurable in the forests of the Saharanpur Divison, is not very good, and that it would be advantageous if new and better markets could be found for such products. At present the supply is limited, but if new markets could be found, the supply of certain kinds, especially those of Jingan and Pial, could be greatly increased.

Four samples were received :—

1. Semla (*Bauhinia retusa*) gum.
2. Jingan (*Odina Wodier*) gum.
3. Pial (*Buchmania latifolia*) gum.
4. Salbar (*Boswellia serrata*) gum.

The following is an account of the chemical examination of these samples :—

Bauchinia retusa.—The sample consisted of large rounded tears and irregular masses, together with small angular fragments. The tears were opaque, brittle, breaking with a vitreous fracture, and brown in colour. The fragments were translucent and varied in colour from yellow to brown. The taste was bland and mucilaginous, though the gum was not very soluble in the mouth. The percentage of moisture in the natural gum was 13·5, and of ash in the dried gum 3·18. When the gum was mixed with twice its weight of water, it swelled up, absorbing the whole of the water, and forming a stiff gelatinous mass. It absorbed in this way six or eight times its weight of water. A 10 per cent. solution, made for determining its comparative viscosity, yielded a thick mucilage which could not be manipulated. A 5 per cent. solution was therefore employed. Even with this amount of water, a considerable quantity of the gum remained insoluble, swelling up and forming a gelatinous mass. This jelly was removed by straining through muslin, and the viscosity of the mucilage determined (*see below*). The solution gave the usual reactions of gum acacia and only very faintly reduced Fehling's solution. With iodine no colour was given, showing the absence of starch and dextrine. Though resembling gum arabic in some of its properties, this gum is more like tragacanth in its behaviour to water. It possesses considerable gelatinising power.

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Odina Wodier.—The specimen consisted of small rounded tears and angular fragments, with a few large irregular masses. The tears were opaque and fissured, the fragments translucent, the gum had very little taste, and varied from white to yellowish white in colour. The gum contained 12·3 per cent. of moisture, and the ash in the dried gum amounted to 3·73 per cent. The gum was completely soluble in twice its weight of water, forming a rather thin mucilage which possessed considerable adhesive power. The viscosity of the mucilage, compared with good gum arabic, is given in the Appendix. The watery solution answered the ordinary tests for gum arabic, except that it had a marked reducing action on Fehling's solution, indicating the presence of a sugar. A solution made with boiling water and cooled was unaffected by iodine, showing the absence of starch and similar constituents.

Buchanania latifolia.—The gum occurred in large irregular massses, tears, and small fragments. The fragments were clear and glassy, as aslo were the larger masses. The latter contained considerable quantities of impurity, in the shape of pieces of bark, &c., and the whole sample was contaminated with vegetable débris. The gum had little taste, and the fragments varied in colour from yellow to reddish brown. The amount of moisture present in the gum was 14·2 per cent., and the ash, calculated from the dried gum, amounted to 6·27 per cent. The gum was not entirely soluble when mixed with twice its weight of water, a portion swelling up, forming a gelatinous mass, which remained undissolved. When making the solution for the viscosity determination, the quantity of this insoluble portion was roughly estimated and found to be about 10 per cent. The mucilage obtained by treating the gum with twice its weight of water was thick, and possessed strong adhesive properties; it behaved like ordinary gum arabic, contained no starch, but a small quantity of sugar was detected.

Comparative Determinations of Viscosity.

The viscosity of the solutions yielded by these gums, compared with that of a solution of the best gum arabic, was approximately determined by noting the time taken by 50 c. c. of a 10 per cent. solution to run from a burette fitted with a fine jet. In the case of the gum from *Bauhinia retusa* a 5 per cent. solution was employed. The following table gives the results obtained:—

	Strength.	Burette time in seconds
Gum arabic	... 10 per cent.	... 78
Odina Wodier	... 10 „	... 58
Buchanania latifolia	... 19 „	... 184
Bauhinia retusa	... 5 „	... 200

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It appears from these approximate results that a solution of the gum from *Odina Wodier* possesses about three-fourths of the viscosity of a similar solution of gum arabic, that of the gum from *Buchanania latifolia* is more than twice, and that from *Bauhinia retusa* nearly eight times as viscous as gum arabic solution of the same strength.

The only previously recorded examination of these gums seems to be that by Dr. Rideal in 1892 (Journal of the Society of Chemical Industry, Volume II.), who was furnished with small samples by Professor Pedler of Calcutta. Although it is evident from the preliminary results recorded by Dr. Rideal that the gums examined by him were the same in origin as those now under notice, it is obvious that their quality is different and usually inferior. It is important that attention should be paid in the future to the exportation of gum of uniform quality.

Boswellia serrata.—This is a gum of an entirely different class. It closely resembles frankincense in its chemical properties. There is little demand for such a product in this country, but it might find a market on the Continent as an ingredient for incense.

Since the commercial value of the gums of the Acacia type must depend on other circumstances than those connected with their chemical properties, as, for example, colour, size, freedom from contamination with extraneous substances, &c., it was thought desirable to obtain the opinions of several of the best known London dealers in gums. They were each supplied with small representative samples of the three gums, and were asked to furnish a report on their probable commercial value. The four reports which have been received may be summarised as follows:—

1. These brokers report that *Odina Wodier*, chiefly on account of its solubility, would be the most readily saleable. The less soluble varieties, *Bauhinia retusa* and *Buchanania latifolia* they consider of small value, as large quantities of similar gums are received in this country from Persia. They are chiefly bought by Continental dealers, and are said to be treated by some special process and rendered soluble. Prices for these inferior gums not large,—from 10*s.* to 20*s.* per hundredweight.

2. The brokers report that there is on the English market a large quantity of all kinds of East Indian gums, which renders it very difficult to dispose of inferior qualities. The only sample which they consider would command a free market is that of *Odina Wodier*. With reference to *Banhinia retusa*, it is remarked that this gum closely resembles Persian or Bassorah gum, but it is not considered to possess at the present time any commercial value. *Odina Wodier* is compared with Cape gum, and, like it, might be used for preparing pale-coloured mucilages, and for mixing with gum acacia to reduce the cost of the latter. Its value is stated to be between 25*s* and 30*s*, per hundredweight. *Buchanania latifolia* is described as a gum of inferior quality only partially soluble, containing a large quantity of extraneous

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matter. It might be useful for cheap manufacturing purposes where the dark colour would not be detrimental. It is likely to fetch 20*s* per hundredweight. These brokers remark that it is desirable, when introducing a new gum, to ship it in large quantities of not less than, say, 5 tons, as English consumers will not trouble to substitute new gums unless they are certain of obtaining a constant supply of average quality.

3. The brokers report that all the samples are of inferior quality. *Bauhinia retusa* is probably worth 15*s* to 20*s* per hundredweight. *Odina Wodier*, which they remark has been carelessly collected and is largely mixed with earthy matter and wood, would fetch from 20*s* to 25*s* per hundredweight. *Buchanania latifolia* they report to be of little value.

4. *Buchanania latifolia* is stated to be too insoluble to be of much value. *Bauhinia retusa* is inferior gum worth about 10*s* per hundredweight. *Odina Wodier* is the most valuable of the three samples submitted, but its appearance is much against it. If a constant supply could be obtained, and if more care be taken in collecting it, it could probably be sold at from 30*s* to 35*s* per hundredweight.

It will be seen from these commercial reports, that it would be worth while to pay some attention to the exportation of *Odina Wodier*, but it would evidently be necessary to take greater care in the collection of the gum, and to avoid the inclusion of extraneous matter. It would probably be desirable to pick out the better pieces which are nearly free from colour, and send them as a separate consignment of first quality, the coloured and contaminated fragments being included in a separate consignment of second quality. It also appears that *Buchanania latifolia* might be worth exporting if greater care were taken in its collection and especially if large quantities of slightly coloured fragments could be put on the market. One firm of brokers who reported on the samples, offered to take charge and dispose of any consignments of these gums which may be sent to this country.

WYNDHAM R. DUNSTAN,

Director, Scientific Department,

Imperial Institute.

2nd February, 1897.

Imperial Institute Report 1896-97

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IV.—REVIEWS.

Forest Administration.

Report for the North-Western Provinces for 1896-97.

The North-Western Provinces comprises three circles which will be treated separately.

Central Circle.—The area at the close of the year was 1,703 square miles. Draft notifications for 103 square miles more have been submitted, and the Conservator considers the saving of those important forests from destruction to be the most important step taken for some years.

"The building at Naini Tal, which had for the past 25 years, 'housed the Direction, Kumaon and Garhwál Forest offices, was 'burnt to the ground during the year, and the Amangarh rest-'house in the Garhwal Division shared the same fate. The loss 'of these two buildings has formed the subject of special reports 'to Government, and need not be further referred to."

"Of the total area of 1,827 square miles of forest under the 'management of the Department in this Circle, the area at-'tempted to be protected from fire was 1,356 square miles, as 'compared with 1,206 square miles in the previous year, and the 'result was 1,329 square miles successfully protected as compared 'with 1,091 square miles in the previous year."

"Generally speaking, the season was a normal one for fire 'conservancy, light rain having fallen occasionally during the 'dry months, and the monsoons setting in at the proper time.

"In Bundelkhand this was, however, not the case, and in 'addition to prolonged drought the Divisional Officer had to 'contend with the danger following from the entire area of his 'forests being opened (under the orders of Government) to a 'famine-striken people. That such good results should have been 'achieved under the circumstances is most creditable to Mr. 'Blanchfield, and perhaps more so to the people themselves, and 'the local revenue officers by whose influence they were induced 'to behave so well. On this subject Mr. Blanchfield writes :—

"The Collectors of the districts helped in every way by 'issuing the needful notices to village officials and communities, 'setting forth their duties and responsibilities. The result was 'that fires were not as frequent as might have been expected, and 'that the people of adjoining villages in most cases helped to put 'out such fires as occurred. One case of villagers refusing assis-'tance in extinguishing a fire was brought to the notice of the 'Collector of Jhansi, who inflicted fines varying from Rs. 2 to 'Rs. 10. This is sure to have a salutary effect in the future.

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"From the beginning crowds of poor people thronged into 'the forests in quest of roots, fruits and mahua, large numbers 'of them being wanderers from distant places and from Native 'States, who, having no homes to go to, stopped inside or on the 'confines of the forests. The Department was careful not to 'interfere too much with these people lest by so doing the inten-'tions of Government might be frustrated."

Over 3½ lakhs of cattle grazed in the forests during the year, and of these less than 86,000 paid full rates, while over 2 lakhs paid nothing, The Conservator agrees with the Divisional Forest Officer, that with respect to reproduction, "*heavy* grazing does more damage than a fire."

"In the case of the Bundelkhand forests, the Divisional 'Officer remarks:—

"Natural reproduction from seed in the Bundelkhand forests 'is not as good as could be wished, there being very little vege-'table soil in most places, and consequently nothing for tree seed-'lings to establish themselves on. Improvement in this respect 'can only be looked for after long years of fire protection and 'grazing restrictions."

"The rights of adjacent villagers in these forests are few and 'unimportant and generally speaking, they possess ample grazing 'grounds of their own outside the limits of the reserves (certainly 'so in the Bánda Range). There thus seems no reason why in 'ordinary years (not years of drought) the practice of grazing in 'the State forests should not be rigidly confined to the right-hol-'ders. Mr. Hill was apparently of this opinion when, in comuni-'cation with the local revenue officers, he induced Government to 'increase the grazing rates in the Bánda forests from one anna per 'cow and two annas per buffalo (per annum) to double that 'amount. The effect of this departure was an immediate decrease 'in the number of foreign cattle infesting the Bánda forests—the 'cattle, for the most part, of professional graziers from a distance '—and the ultimate result (later on the prevalence of drought 'compelled the Government to open the entire area of forests to 'free and unrestricted grazing) of this very moderate tax was 'found to be beneficial; but already the local authorities, influenced 'in this by the villagers (who complain, not of insufficient grazing 'room, but of the loss of the manure which the foreign cattle 'used to leave at their disposal) are moving Government to revert 'to the old order of things and to give additional support to 'their recommendations, do not hesitate to question the utility of 'excluding cattle at all, and to give expression to their doubts re-'garding the soundness of the views of a department of experts 'as opposed to the untrained experience of a few."

So says the Consevator, and the complaint is a common one in many quarters.

"The Local Government has now ordered Working Plans to be prepared for the Bundelkhand forests; and it will be the

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'object of the Working Plans Officer, in consulation with the local 'officers, to effect some compromise whereby the utmost facilities 'of grazing may be extended to the people consistent with the syl- 'vicultural demands of reserves which, if not important to the 'Empire as producers of large timber, are the saving of the 'adjacent districts in times of agricultural distress and drought, 'must be eminently useful from a climatic standpoint, and will in 'the course of time constitute the only local source of such small 'timber, firewood, grass and other forest produce as the village 'people require, and cannot very well dispense with."

It is to be hoped that the Working Plans officer will succeed in devising some such compromise, and if he does, it is still more to be hoped that the N.-W. P. Government will not soon follow the example of Bombay, and throw to the winds the hard-won results of 25 years' Conservancy, disforesting while calling it forest, and practically turning into Revenue waste, immense areas that still remain in the lists as "reserved forests."

"The practically unrestricted grazing to which the impover- 'ished forests of Bundelkhand have been subjected, even in years 'not marked by drought and famine, is a question which will have 'to be seriously considered when the Working Plans for those 'areas are under preparation. The absence of rights, and the 'liberal provision of pasture lands outside the State forests 'should in general, enable us to at least regulate the grazing, 'in such a way that portions of the forests in each Work- 'ing Circle are closed in regular rotation. The circumstance 'that Bundelkhand is so subject to droughts and famines is 'of itself a strong argument in favour of excluding cattle 'in ordinary years, so as te provide for accumulations of fodder 'grass, shrubs and leaves in years of scarcity. And it seems 'hardly deserving of mention that to reduce the number of non- 'rightholders' cattle (especially the herds of ghi-manufacturing '"Gujars," and other professional grazier tribes) resorting to these 'deteriorated woodlands, the grazing rates should be reasonably 'high. In Lalitpur and Jhansi the present rates (1 anna per cow, 'and 2 annas per buffaloe per annum) are, it must be admitted, an 'encouragement to the invasion of the forests by foreign cattle. 'In Banda the rates are double this amount, and this is surely 'not excessive; but a movement has nevertheless been set on foot 'for reducing them."

It is about time that a minimum charge of Re. 1 per year became universal, or that some other steps be devised to check the keeping of innumerable worthless animals at the public expense merely for the sake of their droppings.

"In the Garhwál Division the only experiment demanding 'attention was the attempt to extend artificially the limits of the sâl 'forest on the Dhikala plateau (Patli Dun) to lands whence the sâl 'had in former years (before the creation of the Forest Department)

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'been removed to make way, first for cultivation, and, later on for 'a dense and tall savannah grass. The area treated with sâl seed 'in the previous year (see para. 75 of last year's report) was '73 acres, of which 45 acres were sown over broadcast, and 28 'acres subject to the method of dibbling. As was feared, the 'seedlings got choked by the rising grass or fell victims later on 'to the frosts of the winter months. The Conservator's views on 'this subjected are given in para. 38 of his report for 1894-95, and 'he will not spend any more money on the unprofitable experi-'ment of extending the *sâl areas* by artificial means ; this is a work 'that must be left to nature and our spare cash will be more use-'fully employed in other directions."

The turpentine industry was started in the Naini Tal Division with a depôt and distillery at Katgodam, but the apparatus from Rurki was long delayed, and would not work when it arrived. The boilers supplied to Dehra Dún were perhaps worse, in fact Rurki has become synonymous with bad work and overcharges.

The Conservator points out that the abolition of the *chowki* system has rendered it impossible to form even a fairly correct idea of the annual outturn, because he fears to burden the purchasers of standing coupes with a system of records. There are, however, places where this is done with complete success. The pass system being in force in the District no material can travel without a pass. Every pass contains precise details of the material it covers. The passes are issued by contractor's servants under Conservator's legal authorisation, and all such passes counterfoils and records are open to inspection at any moment. After the coupe is cleared, or as each book is used, the counterfoils at least become the property of the Conservator. The key to the prevention of duplicate registers lies in making them public documents, and especially in comparing loads with the passes covering them, and insisting on true descriptions. Such a system works excellently in some places, though Naini Tal may not yet be ripe for it.

The revenue was about 4½ lakhs, with a net surplus of 1½, or considerably less than usual.

Oudh Circle.—The area is about 1,244 square mile. Fire protection in Pilibhit and elsewhere is *in statu quo*, protection being rendered impossible by popular concessions. It is easy and soothing to the conscience to say that if you give concessions enough the people will cease burning the forests. But it is false. The most constantly burnt areas are invariably those which have the most concessions granted by the liberality of government. The Conservator seems to have a tendency to think likewise, for he says that the Pilibhit people would behave better "if they once 'grasped the fact that continuous deterioration of the State 'Reserves will not result in the area being handed over to them 'as worthless to Government."

On the grazing question the Conservator is very sound, he

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says, "there is a theory held by many, who will not however 'trouble to put it to the proof, that much vexatious impounding 'is carried out by the forest establishment. In point of fact, illicit 'grazing without interference is too common. This is in part 'due to the strongly inculcated necessity of refraining from 'harassing the tenantry."

A good deal of damage is done by wild cattle, of which 147 were caught during the year. There was a profuse seeding of sâl in 1895 but the extreme drought of 1896 rendered it useless, and many of the mature trees, weakened by the effort, succumbed to the fires.

The gross revenue was Rs. 4,80,589, and the surplus Rs. 2,16,359, more than the previous year, but still less than the average by some Rs. 61,374.

School Circle.—The area was 888 sq. miles of forest of all classes, Forest offences were only 127, against 173 the previous year.

'The decrease occurred almost entirely in the Dehra Dún 'and Jaunsár Divisions, and is believed to be mainly due to a very 'favourable harvest. In the Dehra Dún Division, especially, the 'crops were above the average and the prices realized by the sale 'of grain much greater than usual, so that the agricultural people 'were for the most part particularly well off. Under the orders 'of Government, the inhabitants of villages adjoining the forests 'were allowed free access to the reserves throughout the year for 'the purpose of gathering edible products, but they did not avail 'themselves of this privilege at all in the Jaunsár Division and 'only to a small extent in the western part of the Dehra Dún 'Division. In the Sahâranpur Division, on the contrary, very 'large numbers of people resorted to the forests all through the 'dry season."

Fire protection was successful, as 701 square miles out of 888 were attempted, and less than 4 square miles, or 0·57 were burnt.

Out of 162,401 cattle, about half were grazed free, and another 9,734 at privileged rates.

'In the Dehra Dún and Saharanpur Division, sâl—the prin- 'cipal species—having seeded profusely in the previous year, 'produced little or no seed in the year under report, but 'the young seedlings which came up in 1896 continue to thrive. 'In the Jaunsár Division, deodár again produced no seed and 'silver and spruce fir very little. Chír (*Pinus longifolia*) seed- 'ed abundantly and kail (*Pinus excelsa*) produced a moderate 'crop. The oaks failed with the exception of the kharshu oak '(*Quercus semecarpifolia*) which gave a small crop of acorns. 'Reproduction in the higher lying forests of spruce and silver 'fir is generally in a very unsatisfactory condition, and it will be 'necessary in future to resort more largely to artificial means of 'reproduction."

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"The following is an abstract of the financial results of the 'resin transactions during the seven years *i.e.*, from 1890-91 'to 1896-97 inclusive.

'The total quantity of crude resin extacted during this period 'was 4,988½ maunds, and the cost of collection in the forest was 'Rs. 7 420. Of the above quantity, 489½ maunds, costing R. 728, 'were at the close of 1896-97 stored at Kathian, and the remaining '4,499 maunds had been taken to Chakrata, costing as follow :—

	Rs.
'Collection as above	6,692
'Carriage to Chakrata	2,736
'Purchase of tins, etc.	4,692
'Miscellaneous expenses at Chakrata	1,573
Cost of 4,499 maunds delivered at Chakrata ...	15,693

'Of this 480½ maunds, costing Rs. 2,932, were sold at Cha-'krata for Rs. 3,960, 288½ maunds costing Rs. 1,006, were in stock 'at the close of 1896-97, and 3,370 maunds had been sent to 'Dehra at the following cost :—

	Rs.
'Cost delivered at Chakrata as above	11,755
'Carriage to Dehra	2,335
Cost of 3,370 maunds delivered at Dehra ...	14,090

'Out of this, 415 maunds, costing Rs. 1,735, were sold at 'Dehra for Rs.2,621; 279 maunds, costing Rs. 1,167, remained in 'stock at the close of 1896-97, and 2,676 maunds costing Rs. 11,188, 'were converted into colophony and turpentine, yielding 1,993¾ 'maunds of the former and 4,807½ gallons of the latter.

'The cost of manufacture was as follows:—

	Rs.
Cost of 2,676 maunds crude resin delivered in Dehra as above...	11,188
Cost of plant	386
Ditto labour and fuel	1,851
Railway and bullock cart freight on colophony and turpentine sold	1,093
Packing charges	704
Total cost ...	15,222

'and the revenue derived was as follows:—

Sale of colophony	10,879
Do. turpentine	9,725
Value of colophony and turpentine in stock	54
Total ...	20,658

'The net profit on the manufacture of colophony and turpen-'tine was therefore Rs. 5,436, or Rs.2-0-6 per maund of crude resin 'used, compared with Rs. 1-8-5 net profit on the crude resin sold 'locally. The above account includes no charges for establish-'ment not specially entertained for resin works."

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The gross revenue was Rs. 4,56,722, and surplus Rs. 1,50,325, which is nearly half a lakh more than the average.

Orders of Government.—The total area of forest of all classes in the 3 circles was 3,958 square miles, of which 3,882 square miles had been surveyed, leaving only 76 square miles unsurveyed, 73 square miles of which are the Chir forests of the School Circle recently leased from the Rajah of Tihri Garhwal.

Working Plans appear to be in force for 3,219 sq. miles, leaving only 619 sq. miles unprovided for, as follows:—

Central Circle	308 sq. miles in Bundelkhand. 8 sq. miles in the Ganges Division. 2 sq. miles recently reserved in Naini Tal.
Oudh Circle	138 sq. miles in Gonda.
School Circle	150 sq. miles in Jaunsar, 84 sq. miles being leased Chir forests of which the Working Plan is nearly ready. 13 sq. miles in the Dehra Dun Division, of which 12 sq. miles are unclassed.

Whilst thus new Plans have to be made, all plans are arriving at the term of their revision, so that all three Conservators will have their hands full for some time.

Of the total area in the 3 circles protected from fire, or 76 per cent. of the whole, only 3 per cent. failed, and the cost was 6·34 pies per acre.

Q.

Forest Administration Report, Berar, for 1896-97.

The *Berar* Forest Report has nearly as many reviews as the Madras one, and it is surprising that after the Commissioner and the Resident have had their say, there should be anything left for the Government of India. Like that of the Central Provinces, the chief subject is the famine and its connection with the Forest Administration and we are very glad to see the appreciation with which the Commissioner has recorded his opinion of the work done by the Conservator and his officers. We reproduce, with very great pleasure, the following extract: after a perusal of so many Provincial Reports bearing in them evidence of dislike to the Department and of a general kind of feeling that it is a nuisance and its officers only so many persecutors, it is a relief to find, as we have done in the Reports of the Central Provinces and Berar for 1896-97, that there are high officers who can appreciate good work, even if done by the Forest Department.

"There is no doubt that the Conservator of Forests, Mr. C. 'Bagshawe, has deserved the fullest acknowledgments for his good

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'work during the past year. His organization and supervision of 'the relief works and charitable relief in the Melghat, have been 'such as I confess I could scarcely have believed possible. With 'the assistance of Mr. Williamson, his Deputy Conservator, an 'officer of great merit, Mr. Kenny, a young but promising Assist-'ant Conservator, and Mr. Misri Pershad, Extra Assistant Conser-'vator, he has practically administered the Melghat in a season of 'great scarcity and actual famine, in a manner that could not have 'been surpassed. I feel that I owe a great debt to Mr. Bagshawe 'in connection with this famine, and I hope that the Resident will 'allow me to convey to Mr. Bagshawe the assurance that his 'services in this year will not be overlooked.

'The Forest Department in Berar has earned the gratitude of 'the people, and have rendered them services which will not be 'easily forgotten; their devotion to their work and their sympa-'thetic and liberal administration of the forest laws and rules, have 'been felt by the population of the Melghat, and especially and 'warmly appreciated. In an Appendix to his report the Conserva-'tor has given a brief account of the works carried out in the Mel-'ghat for purposes of famine relief under seven heads, which 'show the extent of the operations under his charge.

"The actual relief works, such as construction of roads and 'wells, are all of permanent utility, and have anticipated works pro-'vided for in the working plans. Rs. 74,812 was spent on roads, 'of which 129 miles of cart road, 6 miles of hauling roads, and '2 miles of bridle roads were completed, and 9 wells were lined 'with masonry at a cost of Rs. 928. By this means 505,258 'persons were relieved, or an average of 1,914 persons for 301 'days. Besides this 369,365 persons received gratuitous relief, 'or daily average of 1,726 for 214 days.

"In addition, forest concessions in regard to cutting bam-'boos and timber at nominal rates in the reserves gave great 'relief to a population of 11,000 at a loss of Rs. 12,250 only in 'revenue."

"There being no supplies or stores of grain in the Melghat, 'cheap shops had to be opened, and a sum of Rs. 55,000 granted 'by the Central Committee of the Charitable Relief Fund enabled 'the Conservator to supply cattle and seed grain to cultivators 'who would otherwise have been unable to recover their position. 'All these measures have been briefly and modestly stated by Mr. 'Bagshawe, who has mentioned the names of the subordinates 'who specially deserve recognition of their work. I can only 'add that their work has been done in the most satisfactory man-'ner, and I fully endorse all that has been said by Mr. Bagshawe, 'regarding the work of his subordinates, and beg to bring their 'names to the favourable notice of the Resident."

We are very glad to see that the Commissioner's opinions are endorsed fully by the Resident. Such cases only show that if the authorities can forego their distrust of the Department, it can be

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made, what it ought to be, a very valuable assistance to the general administration of a Province and that not merely in an exceptional year but always.

The area of forest in Berar is classified into :—

A. Timber and fuel reserves	1519	sq. miles.
B. Grass reserves	92	,,
C. Pasture reserves	2568	,,
Total	4179	,,

Out of this area 725 sq. miles are under permanent Working Plans, and 967 sq. miles under 'provisional' Working Plans, while 2,172 sq. miles are areas for which plans are in hand and 315 sq. miles are not yet dealt with. On this subject the Government of India say :—

"No further progress has been made in the preparation of 'regular working-plans, and it is assumed by the Conservator that 'matters can in this respect rest as they stand. The Government 'of India in last year's review accepted the opinion that having 'regard to the simplicity and uniformity of the preliminary work-'ing-schemes required for the greater part of the Berar forests, 'there was no necessity for elaborating them into complicated 'working-plans. But it was stated as desirable that the schemes 'should, when completed, be submitted to the Inspector-General 'of Forests for scrutiny, and that control books should be kept up 'as regards them, in order to insure their prescriptions being 'attended to and maintained. No schemes have as yet, been sub-'mitted and it is hoped that the point will not be overlooked. 'There seems inded no reason why such schemes, though sanctioned 'for a short period only, should not be classed as regular work-'ingplans."

And we quite agree that there is not the least necessity in a Working Plan being 'complicated,' and think that the simpler and less elaborate a Working Plan can be, provided it lays down what is to be done in proper manner and gives the necessary sylvicultural prescriptions required for the maintenance of the annual yield and the progressive improvement of the capital, the better.

The area which was burnt was 31 sq. miles or 2·1 per cent. of the area attempted, which is a very satisfactory record for such a year, especially as the fire-season extended from October 6th to July 11th, *i. e.* over 9 months. The area open to grazing was, of course, increased, but in the Melghat very few people took advantage of the liberality with which free grazing was provided for famine cattle. The heavy grazing in the South Berar forests brought to light a much greater general distribution of seedlings and saplings than had been supposed to exist; and the Conservator remarks on this "if conversion to a faith in protection from 'fire and cattle is ever needed now-a-days, a visit to the forests on

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'the Ajunta ghats and comparison of what we call 'A' and 'C' 'areas would convince the most sceptical."

The financial results of the year (Financial) was—

		Rs.
Receipts	...	5,17,671
Expenditure	...	2,40,708
Surplus	...	2,77,066

showing, in spite of famine, the highest revenue both net and gross of the last five years.

V—SHIKAR AND TRAVEL.

A Day on the Beas.

Towards the middle of last March a very well-known forest officer, whom we will call A, came down in this direction to visit the famous, or rather infamous, Hoshiarpur Chos, and after we had seen them and marched through the Lohara forests, we made our way down to the Hoshiarpur bamboo forests by river instead of going along by the road. To give a complete account of the trip would occupy too much space and would also not be particularly interesting, for like so many fishing excursions, it was mainly a case of unfavourable conditions and bad luck which all our ingenuity was unable to conquer, though a fish came along now and then just to keep us from utter despondency. Still, when we started on the morning of the day that was to retrieve our fortunes, we were not so very far off that undesirable condition; as for the previous two days we had been on the very best water in the river, the place where each of us had confidently hoped for that monster fish, which it is always the fisherman's ambition to catch, and which in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, he never gets. The water I have referred to consisted of two long, slow and very deep pools with a nice run between them, the head of the lower pool and the run could be fished by wading out from the bank, the latter with a fly spoon and the former with a spinning bait, but the rest and greater portion of the water could only be worked by that abominable method known as 'chukkering' from a 'sarnai.' Neither of us had ever fished the Beas or tried this particular game before, and we came to the unanimous conclusion that it was the most uninteresting and tiresome method of catching fish, or rather trying to catch fish, that we had ever attempted. There is undoubtedly a certain amount of skill required in manœuvering to get out a long line below you and then in keeping your spoon, which is the only possible bait for this style of

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fishing, off the bottom of the river ; but do what you will, your spoon spends a good deal of its time reclining pleacefully on the bottom and you spend most of yours in adjuring the sarnai men to keep you moving up stream or at least prevent you from running down on to your spoon. We chukkered and chukkered until we gave it up in disgust although the local men told us that never before in the memory of man had any sahibs left this water without fish, and pointed to an over-hanging rock in the lower pool on which was drawn the outline of a sixty-five pound monster that a famons Beas fisherman had caught some years ago. Our failure however was not altogether surprising, for on the first day we were afflicted with such a storm of wind, that we were smothered and almost choked with sand and our sarnais blown into the rocks, under which we were only too glad to shelter until a lull in the storm let us get back to camp, breakfast and office. A tip that may be useful to anyone fishing in this style from a sarnai, is to have out the centre third of the charpai netting and sit with your feet hanging down in the water ; or if you wish to keep dry, have a little wooden well made of such a depth that it just keeps clear of the water. If you are inclined to be still more luxurious, have a back made to the charpai ; then you can chukker in comparative ease and comfort, though, as I have said before, it is a poor game at the best of times, and one of its greatest disadvantages is the awful disturbance made in the water by the splashing and kicking of the men in trying to keep the unwieldy machine from travelling down stream.

The 20th of March was to take us down the river from Sithána to Ray and then in the evening across to the forest bungalow at Pandain. So about half part seven we embarked on our sarnais, hopeful as ever, but hardly expectant, for we knew that the river split up into several branches below us, and were told that we had left all the best of the water behind us. Till well on towards midday we neither of us touched a fish, and I may say here that we never did do anything in the morning and that nearly all our fish were caught in the middle of the day and the afternoon, probably because it was unusually cold and stormy for the time of year. About midday, however, I changed the spoon for a phantom, for natural bait was not procurable, and shortly had a small fish, and not long afterwards came on a good pool just below the junction of two large branches of the river with another small and shallow branch running into the middle of it, deep and with a nice stream throughout, this seemed to me to be just the place for fish, so I landed and started spinning a leaded phantom a little above where the small branch came in and just as I got to the edge of this had another little fish. A couple of casts afterwards I was on to something quite different. A fish that grabbed the phantom with a blow that pulled the point of the rod down almost to the water and that then, instead of going off

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with a big rush, hung in the stream and allowed me to coax him towards the shore, until suddenly realizing that something was wrong, he turned and went off down stream with such a rush that I thought he would bring me to the end of my hundred and fifty yards of line, an experience which having once had happen to me on the Jumna, I did not desire to have repeated. Down stream he took me, coming in gradually and then going off again with a run into the middle of the pool several times before he was too done to resist the steady pressure of the rod any longer, and had perforce to submit to being landed. Thirty two pounds was his or rather her weight, and I was somewhat lucky to land her as she had succeeded in breaking two out of the three mounts on the phantom. Back I came to the same place and shortly had a nice little eight pounder who fought like a fiend and then after one more offer from what seemed to be a good fish, and I was off down stream to overtake A—who had in the meantime been fishing at the head of the next pool, a small one, from which he had succeeded in taking five small fish on the spoon. Hearing of my luck he too put up a phantom and started down the next long pool while I went straight through and found some more nice water below, but only small fish. In one place where the water came tumbling in over some rocks a little chap had the phantom almost as it touched the surface and then jumped clean out of the water, a thing that I have only once or twice previously seen a Mahseer do. A second little fish here and I went on to where another branch of the river came into the pool ; but this one came tearing down a steep bed and was too strong to wade across, so I had to be content with getting as far into it as I could, casting out into the strong stream and playing the phantom in it. Four more small fish I took here and had perhaps twice as many runs for the water was very strong and the fish did not seem to be able to get a fair hold of the phantom, very possibly they could not see it very clearly. Here too I met with an accident to my tackle, for a little beast of a fish went off with a brand new phantom, through the breaking of the single wire trace, when the fish was within a couple of feet of the bank. To be broken by a good fish is all in the day's work, but to be broken by a little three pounder is more than aggravating and I am afraid that single wire came in for no little abuse. It is, I believe, a good deal used for trolling for salmon in Lock Tay and for that purpose is undoubtedly excellent as it withstands almost any direct strain, but I do not think it is reliable for casting ; at any rate it has sold me several times and I prefer to use the Hercules wire gimp, which though a little more expensive, is wonderfully strong and flexible and never kinks. While I was engaged in putting my tackle to rights, one of A—'s men came down from the pool above with a request for the loan of the weighing machine and said that A——— had got a big fish, and after a little while he brought the spring balance back with the information that the fish scaled

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thirty five pounds. Shortly after A——himself came down and we had a general inspection of the spoil, and when we had fully admired our two big fish which matched each other beautifully, we voted an adjournment for tiffin for it was nearly four o'clock, we had had nothing since our early breakfast and were quite ready to investigate the contents of the luncheon basket. Thereafter we got no more fish and so dropped quietly down the river the remaining short distance to Ray, where the horses were in waiting to take us across the three miles to Pandain. We were very wet and fairly tired, but still the ride was a pleasant one for we had the day's experiences to discuss, and though the bag, 17 fish and 109 pounds, was nothing out of the common, neither of us had ever caught quite as big a fish before, and so we agreed that the results made up for our previous ill luck, even for that chukkering at Sithána.

It may be interesting to some fishermen, if I note in conclusion, that the results of our trip fully corroborated previous experience as to the advantages to be gained by using a Malloch spinning reel. We both had these reels and found them work very satisfactorily. In anything but quite slack water, the spin produced by winding in is quite sufficient, while the distance you can cast with one of these reels is certainly one and a half times as great as that to be obtained with an ordinary reel and any of the customary methods of coiling the line on the ground or round the hand. There is no bother with a kinking line and none of that exasperating fouling of the line round stones and sticks. Being able to cast further, you can keep farther away from the water you wish to fish, while finally, and probably greatest advantage of all, you can wade as deep as you please and still cast as far as ever.

X.

On the choice of Rifles for the use of Forest Officers.

A fitful correspondence flickers in sporting papers regarding the comparative merits of various rifles, each sportsman swears by that weapon with which he has made a successful shot or series of shots and few of them recognize that in circumstances however slightly altered, their joy might have turned into grief. In fact, each views the case from a different stand point and to the inexperienced reader some confusion of ideas is inevitable. It has often occurred to me that with the experience I now possess I might, during the past 25 years have saved much coin expended in trying various rifles and also, at the same time, have increased my bag of large game, and it may therefore be worth the while of the

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more junior members of the Department to consider the subject of rifles from a Forest Officer's point of view. The possession of many rifles is a weariness to the flesh. Want of practice causes one to shoot badly with all, and one never has the weapon one requires to hand at the right moment; but the owner of two good rifles should be able to pass his service, varying between the denser jungle of the plains and the breezy heights of India's mountain ranges, with the maximum of satisfaction to himself and the minimum total expenditure in armament. We will consider how these objects can best be attained.

As before hinted, I have possessed many—far too many—rifles; from the double barrel 8-bore weighing 17 lbs. to the latest small-bore with smokeless powder, including expresses of all calibres; but I have never yet succeeded in procuring one weapon which would meet every emergency. On some occasions it is imperative that we should produce the shock of a knock-down blow, in others we require penetration; sometimes external accuracy at large ranges is necessary, or again so long as we can hit a six inch bull at a few yards distance, we ask nothing more. The rifle which is guaranteed to attain all these results, and perhaps others, will in practice probably be found to be a sorry makeshift at all times.

We may, for convenience sake, classify rifles under three heads: large bores, Expresses and small bores; the former comprises rifles from 4 to 12 bore; the second those from ·577 to ·360; and the third rifles from ·303 to ·250 firing smokeless powder. The first class of rifle is essentially a luxury to the ordinary, Forest Officer. To be effective they must be heavy and therefore unwieldy to a certain extent; they are useful only to take the first shot at very heavy game or to meet its charge at close distances. For the former purpose, a lighter rifle may be found which is equally effective, and being more accurate, allows the sportsman to take his opening shot at greater distances, thus running less risk of disturbing the game and giving more chance for selection of a suitable shot. In the case of the hunter being hunted, if a large bore is thought indispensable, a Paradox or smooth bore gun of the same calibre would have an effect equal to that of the rifle and would be useful for other purposes than the sole object of propelling a solid mass of lead. As an example, the service M. H. rifle with its ounce bullet and three drams of black or equivalent of smokeless powder, is a most effective weapon for the first shot at distances within 100 yards at bison, rhino and elephant; whilst if compelled subsequently to face the wounded animal, a smooth bore is good enough for distances up to 50 yards: and beyond that range, leisure might be found again to utilize the accuracy and penetration of the M. H. with final results. It is not therefore proposed to discuss the varieties and uses of large bore rifles but to pass on to Expresses so-called.

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In an Express rifle, in order to ensure a certain minimum muzzle velocity, the weight of the charge of black powder must be at least one-third of that of the bullet. This necessitates the use either of an inordinate charge of powder (sometimes so large that it cannot all be consumed in the barrel) or of a light bullet; and, as a rule, this bullet is so constructed that it breaks up on impact and thus sacrifices penetration to shock. The immense advantage of rifles of this description is that the less trajectory obviates the necessity of accuracy in judging distances; the disadvantages are recoil, noise, blinding smoke and uncertainty at distances over 200 yards. Moreover, owing to the high speed of the bullet and its shape, deflection on encountering the slightest opposition is frequent; and lastly there is great want of penetration. It is true that in these days, Express rifles are constructed to shoot two entirely different types of bullet, a heavy long range and a lighter short range projectile; but, bearing in mind that a high class double rifle is thrown off its shooting by the slightest variation in loading, it may well be doubted if all the merits claimed for this type of weapon are proven.

The smaller the bore of the Express the higher the velocity of the bullet but the less momentum; hence both shock and penetration fall off in the smaller bores and for the Forest Officer there are only two or three rifles of this class worthy of consideration, *viz*: the ·500 and ·577 bores. The smaller Expresses are beautiful weapons, but the ordinary mortal when placed in trying circumstances does not shoot sufficiently accurately to make it worth his while to risk his life on the chance of stopping dangerous game with a ·360 ·400 or ·450 bullet. With harmless animals again, any failure to locate the small projectiles in exactly the right place may cause the loss of a much coveted trophy. These small Expresses need not therefore be classified as Forest Rifles.

The ·500 Express on the other hand is a good all round weapon up to a certain point. For a body shot at all thin-skinned game it answers it purpose well; but it is not a bone-crusher nor is it of much account in a facing shot. The writer has possessed a rifle of this class by Henry for over 20 years, and has killed therewith hundreds of head of large game, but must confess that he has also lost an unnecessary large number, and has been once or twice placed in inconvenient surroundings, owing to want of penetrating power in the bullet and insufficiency of shock imparted. Especially in the case of animals whose massive bones are covered with layers of elastic muscle, is the ·500 Express unsatisfactory; the bullet expands to the fullest extent in the muscle and is reduced to powder in the bone without causing serious injury. Such a wound inflicted in a big tiger, though it may for the moment roll the animal over, often results in causing a frenzy of fury which may become decidedly unpleasant. When hunting a tiger single handed with a ·500 Express, great care should be taken to ascertain accurately where the bullets have struck; an animal hit forward

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of the stomach at right angles to the spine, or at an acute angle to it from behind, will either drop dead within a few yards or at any rate halt and die after a short time. He may leave the locality as hurriedly, if the wound is only superficial, and it is therefore well to be fairly certain of what has happened before proceeding to verify one's opinion. To fire with a ·500 Express at a facing tiger is, save in exceptional cases, to be avoided; it may be dangerous to the shooter and it will certainly spoil the tiger. Owing to the angles at which a tiger's head is held, the conical bullet will most probably glance on the skull and the best chance of bagging the beast is to hold low at the junction of neck and chest and trust to luck for penetration to the vitals. It is, however, just as likely that the bullet will pass outside the cavity of the chest without inflicting mortal injuries. One can never predict with even fair certainty what the effect of a conical hollow-fronted bullet travelling at high speed will be, because it behaves entirely differently with each change in circumstances; with one shot you may drill a hole through a buffalo's forehead, with the next the bullet may break up on a deer's haunch, inflicting a ghastly wound and condemning the unfortunate animal to lingering death: but generally speaking, the effect produced is primarily dependent on the angle of impact, the acuter the angle the less probability of the infliction of a serious wound.

The ·577 Express is the only rifle of this class with a powder charge and weight of bullet capable theoretically of overcoming the momentum of a charging tiger. There is much comfort in this thought, and there can be no good shooting without confidence. The heavier bullet and lower muzzle velocity also ensures greater penetration and though the use of the hollow-fronted bullet is primarily open to the same objections in this bore as in the ·500, yet its effect when properly used is much greater, and by substituting a solid bullet of soft lead, we ensure penetration with sufficient shock to knock all soft-skinned game out of time. Such a bullet will travel from throat to haunch of a tiger, or pass through both shoulders to be found flattened under the skin on the other side; whilst the hollow fronted bullet will, if placed anywhere in the body, induce death in a comparatively short time. The ·577 Express, however, presents the disadvantages of weight, recoil, noise and smoke, to a greater degree than the ·500; its range of accuracy is less; it is essentially a weapon for use for distances within 100 yds. when in spite of these drawbacks it is, if properly handled, the most effective forest rifle for large game at present in existence, it is handier than a larger bore rifle and will produce equal results. The makers of smokeless powders now advertize cartridges for Express rifles loaded with their compounds. The effects of these powders in small bore rifles are often so unexpected, that until they are more fully regulated, I prefer not to fire large charges save in weapons specially constructed of enormous strength in order to resist any unforeseen

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influences which may be brought to bear in these sensitive compounds.

Whatever rifle the Forest officer may possess in the more serious pursuit of game, he will still wish to have a weapon to be the companion of his lighter moments, to keep his hand and eye in training, to provide venison and fowl for his household. For everyday use he will probably select a ·303 or ·256 bore, he will probably waver between a double or single barrel with or without Magazine attachment. A good double barrel rifle will cost about four times as much as a single barrel, and as at present made it will not be accurate much over 300 yards; whilst the effective range of the small barrel will be 3 or 4 times that distance. With a single barrel, 10 aimed shots can be fired in a minute; not much more can be done with a double barrel, so that the sole advantage in the case of the latter appears to be the celerity with which the second shot can be put in. As for magazine attachments, apart from the fact that they sometimes refuse to work, and the objectionable rattle of the action, their most serious drawback is that any alteration of the length of the bullet, often necessary in order to vary the extent of penetration, is too liable to cause difficulties in the passage of the cartridge from magazine to chamber.

The writer advocates the use of a single barrel, ·303 bore rifle, because in the first place it will shoot Government and other service ammunition in an emergency; secondly, because the cleaning of the barrel is easier in the larger bore, and lastly because by the simple insertion of a Morris tube, excellent practice can be obtained without expenditure of expensive cartridges. The use of a nosed solid bullet propelled by Rifleite is also suggested; that powder is clean and fairly uniform whilst the behaviour of the bullet is constant. The same cannot be said of other bullets where break—up on impact is ensured by weakening by various methods the nickel envelope at top and sides. Examination of such bullets will disclose the fact that the process employed is most irregular in results and it becomes evident, without going to the vexation of practical test, that the behaviour of the missiles must also be extremely various. The soft-nose bullet expands in impact and is reduced to powder on continued resistance being met. It passes through the bodies of small deer, and its fullest effect is obtained when used on the larger deer, where resistance is sufficiently prolonged to cause the destruction of the bullet. The extreme handiness and accuracy of the ·303 make is an invaluable weapon against all kinds of non-dangerous game, but these advantages are, of course, discounted by the smallness of the wound and inferiority of shock in comparison with larger rifles. The smaller the bore the finer shooting is required and those who think that with the ·303 any shot will be effective will be grievously disappointed and had better retain the less accurate but more powerful Express. As a weapon for stopping dangerous game the ·303 is futile, the shape

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of bullet is against the chance of a facing shot being effective and the shock imparted is only about one half of that communicated by a ·577 Express bullet. When shooting from howdahs, surrounded by a crowd of friends and dependents, any rifle is good enough for dangerous game. It is called sport when a beast, maddened by careless shooting with unsuitable weapons, makes ineffectual efforts to retaliate on his butchers; but when the chances are more equalized, that weapon is best which will enable the sportsman at once and finally to take advantage of the opportunity which his courage or knowledge of woodcraft has afforded him.

Had the writer again to pass half a life time in an Indian forest, he would consider himself adequately armed if he possessed a double barrel ·577 Express and a single barrel ·303 rifle, and that whether located in hills or plains. He would have these two rifles stocked and balanced exactly alike and, more important still, the pull off should be the same. The addition of any other rifle, save perhaps a service M. H. Carbine, he would hold to be a luxury of somewhat doubtful value tending to reduce that degree of familiarity with ones' weapons which is essential to all good shooting. A knowledge of the capabilities of these two weapons and of the effect of the bullets they carry, is sufficient to give confidence in the pursiut of large game, provided care is taken to locate the first shot in approximately the right place, and that precautions are taken to prevent undue advantage being taken of the hunter. Most accidents and ill success in big game shooting arise from neglecting one or other of these two important considerations and a whole battery of heavy rifles will not lessen the danger or change the luck if they are not attended to.

I append a table showing the approximate striking force of the bullets of the rifles treated of.

·500	Express	hollow	bullet	... 29	Striking force in 100s ft. lbs. without reference to penetration.
,,	,,	solid	,,	... 32	
·577	,,	hollow	,,	... 34	
,,	,,	solid	,,	... 37	
·303	,,	,,	,,	... 19	

O. C.

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

The Timber Trade of Siam.

According to the customs returns, the export of teak was 49,690 tons, value 264,805*l*., as compared with 48,994 tons, value 296,107*l*, in 1895.

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The quality in the returns is stated in piculs, and it appear that the customs authorities consider a picul weight (133⅓ lbs.) of teak as equal to $\frac{1}{50}$th of a ton in measurement, and piculs have therefore been converted into tons on this basis.

The following is a short summary of the returns :—

ANALYSIS of Exports of Teak from Bangkok in 1896.

Destination.			Quantity.	Value.
			Tons.	£
Europe	...	...	6,075½	57,005
Bombay	...	...	13,502½	61,882
Hong-Kong	...	...	9,046	48,691
Singapore	...	...	11,204	24,528
Saigon	...	...	340½	2,660
China	...	...	1,030½	3,000
Coast	...	...	287	1,301
Other countries	...	...	8,204	65,738
	Total	...	49,690	264,805

Other information which I have received from private and reliable sources gives the same total export in tons, but some mistake appears to have been made by the customs in the figures for the different destinations, the quantity exported to Europe being probably nearer 18,000 tons and to Singapore not more than 3,500 tons.

The returns show very great variations in the average value per ton of teak exported to the various ports, the Singapore valuation (21 dol. 89 c.=2*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.*) being the lowest, and that for shipments to Europe the highest, viz. : 93 dol. 82 c. (9*l.* 7*s.* 7*d.*)

The year 1896 witnessed a steady rise in the value of teak, not only in the home markets, but also, though to a lesser extent, in the Asiatic ports, and the average f.o b. value of teak may be put down at 90 dol. (9*l.*) per ton for the quality shipped to Europe and 40 dol. (4*l.*) for that shipped elsewhere.

On this basis and assuming all the timber shipped to Europe to have been of the higher quality, and that shipped elsewhere to have been second class, the total value of the exports from Bangkok may be taken as 288.760*l.* The export in 1895 was valued by the customs at 296,107*l.*, but by local timber merchants at 214,717*l.*, and it may be safely assumed that the export in 1896 considerably exceeded that of 1895 in value, although the quantity was put down in last year's report at 61,828 tons.

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The total number of logs which arrived at Chainat, the duty-station, about 100 miles above Bangkok, is reported as 58,606, being about 12,000 logs below the average of the four preceding years. At one time it appeared probable that the season would turn out a comparative failure, but late rains up country brought down some thousands of logs which had not been expected, and the abnormally high prices ruling in Bangkok induced traders to bring down timber which would otherwise have been left till next season.

Logs arriving at Chainat were sent on to Bangkok with as little delay as possible, and the number of logs recorded as despatched from the duty-station is 59,522, or about 900 in excess of the numbers received during the season.

The number of logs reported as having reached Bangkok is 51,547, being about 8,000 short of the number reported to have been despatched from Chainat. It is therefore evident that a number of rafts must reach Bangkok without attracting general attention, and it is supposed that some of them at least get mixed up with the small logs used for local consumption, of which about 20 000 to 30,000 logs come down annually, and which are mostly used for building purposes.

There are now five large steam saw-mills in Bangkok, of which three are British, one Danish, and one Chinese. The Siamese Government have started a small mill for their own use just above Bangkok; the owners of the present Chinese mill have a new one in course of erection, which promises to be the largest in Bangkok when completed, and another British firm who have lately established a branch here are contemplating the erection of a new mill.

Besides the steam saw-mills above-mentioned there are about 60 saw-sheds in which teak logs are sawn up by hand.

Last year's report stated that Siamese teak is becoming recognised abroad as being the same desirable article as Burma teak. In this connection it may be useful to note that Messrs. Denny, Mott and Dickson's wood market report for May says:—"It is increasingly admitted that first-class Bangkok wood is far more economical in conversion than the inferior Burma wood, which increased values have brought forward during the last few months, and so long as Siamese shippers continue to maintain their standard of quality their shipments will continue to find a ready market at the expense of the Burmese shippers, who are trusting to the good demand for teak to enable them to lower a standard of quality which has been none too high during recent years."

Again, their report for June says:—"Bangkok cargoes continue to maintain their good character, both for careful shipment and conversion, which more than compensates for the, perhaps, less kindly nature of the wood, as compared with that grown in Burma."—(*Consular Report.*)

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Report on the Cultivation of Olives in Italy.

Origin of the Olive.

It is certain that the greater part of the Mediterranean littoral was in ancient times, as it now is, the home of the olive, and of all the countries which claim the tree as indigenous, Italy is that which is the chief of the oil-producing countries of the region. And in Italy it grows upon a great variety of soil, and in a fair variety of climate. It is found wild on the scorching and rocky hills near Taranto where it grows from seeds which have probably been carried from place to place by birds, and casually deposited in some fissure where sufficient soil has been found to nourish the young plant. For birds are extremely partial to olives; indeed in the southern provinces of Italy, where the large migratory thrush, so heartily praised by Horace on his journey to Brundusium, still abounds, we find the expense of gunpowder for bird-scaring a considerable item in the olive grower's accounts. The cultivated olive, too, is a tree which is very independent of soil and may be seen growing on a rocky hillside or on the deep soil, of the plains and flourishing as well in the one situation as in the other.

Oils of Lucca and Bari.

The small provnice of Lucca has given its name to the finest table oil in the world and though the best oils of Bari in this district compare favourably with it, they have not the same celebrity. In point of quantity at least, this consular district is far ahead of the rest of Italy, as will be seen by the following figures.

Production and export.

The total amount of olive-ground in Italy is officially estimated at 908,072 hectares (a hectare being roughly 2½ acres); of which 492,430 hectares, or more than half the total, are in this district. The total produce of oil is reckoned at 3,350,143 hecto litres, of which this district yields 1,934,948 or more than half of the produce of the whole kingdom. Of the South Italian oils, those of Bari have the greatest repute, and many of the trees are of very great antiquity. The annual export of oil from Italy amounted in 1888 to 63,500 tons. A very large proportion of this export goes to the British Empire, and though no doubt the importers care little about the methods of the cultivation of the tree, as compared with the market price at which they can purchase the oil wholesale, the cultivation is an important item to British trade, because a determined effort is being made to introduce the tree both into South Africa and the Australian Colonies. The plants are being sent out in considerable numbers from Naples, chiefly, if not solely, by the firm of Messrs. Dammann, of Portici, a suburb of Naples, who have also charged themselves with the introduction of the Karob into South Africa.

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Uses of oil.

It is unnecessary to mention the variety of uses to which olive oil is put, but it may be interesting to note that large quantities are used on sheep-runs in the Colonies for sharpening the clippers at shearing time. Time also can show what success the introduction of the tree will have in our Colonies. It may be that the best oil will be produced; it may also be that only the lower class oils, such as those grown in Turkey, which are only useful for making soap, will be manufactured, but at any rate a useful lubricant will be obtained, and a very picturesque tree added to the landscape. In the meantime a report in English on the cultivation of the plant cannot fail to be of service.

The oleaster. Olive wood.

The wild olive or oleaster is a tree of small stunted growth and yields a fruit from which very little oil can be procured. The grafting of the oleaster was known in very ancient times, and is mentioned by St. Paul in his Epistle to the Romans who, however, for the reasons of his metaphor or perhaps from ignorance of arboriculture, reverses the process, and describes the oleaster as being grafted on the olive, whereas of course it is the cultivated tree which is grafted on the stem of the wild one. The oleaster can be raised from seed in the ordinary way, or it can be raised from the fungoids which olives bear underground at the point where the roots separate themselves from the trunk. Olive trees live to a very great age, and their wood is very useful for cabinet making, as it is hard as well as pliable and can be easily manipulated. The smaller boughs form excellent fuel, for owing to the oil in them they burn like a torch, and as the trunks of old trees are apt to become hollow, many of them are only fit for the same purpose. The tree is evergreen, and the leaves fall after about three years, being of course constantly replaced in the course of nature by younger ones. The olive commences to flower at the base of its foliage, the flowers gradually extending upwards. The best crops are always obtained when the trees flower early, and this occurs (when the spring is mild) as early as the month of March but the tree is susceptible to cold, and if it gets checked it will flower as late as June, in which case a failure of the crop may be anticipated. Old trees usually yield a crop only in every alternate year, which is gathered in the autumn and early winter. The largest trees are found in Sicily, where they grow almost like oaks, and may be found measuring 25 feet round the trunk,

Varieties.

The Italian Blue Book on Agriculture published in 1874, names 300 varieties of tree as existing in Italy, of which 67 are found in this Consular district. Obviously, in a country like Italy

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where so many dialects are spoken, in many cases the names of these varieties are purely local, and as the same variety is called by one name in Tuscany and by another at Naples, it would be absolutely useless to mention distinctions which have no difference, in a report written for British readers.

Classes of olive.

Olives are in fact divided into three classes, namely :—(I) the small olive with few leaves, which grows freely, resists the cold better than the others, is more free from disease, grows on the poorest soil, and though generally very hardy, does not yield oil and is useless for table purposes. This tree will oil yield good enough for sharpening shears and for mechanical purposes generally, and it will grow almost anywhere. It is known by the names of "Miguda," "Trillo," "Cerisiola," and "Martino," in Italy. The second class known as "Olivi di Spagna" has larger leaves, a large and succulent fruit adapted for table use, subject to the necessary treatment. These trees require rich and good soil and no great vicissitudes of temperature ; they will not bear cold, and are subject to a good many diseases. If they get chilled the fruit falls, and such berries as remain give but little oil, and that of poor quality. These varieties are supposed to have come to Italy from Spain, and to have found a climate in Italy which does not always agree with them. They might all the same do well in the warmer climate of Australia. The third class is preferable for general cultivation, as it avoids both extremes, being hardy, and at the same time producing a good and useful crop. These are known in Italy by the names of "Razze," Corniola," Ogliarolo," "Pigudo," and "Monopolese."

Climatic conditions.

Like the palm, the olive will flourish in many places where it will bear no fruit. It will not yield in very hot places, and it will not endure frost, or sudden transitions from cold to heat ; it does not mind sea air, and in many places on the Mediterranean it grows to the water's edge, where it must often be affected by salt and spray. Twelve degrees centigrade below zero (10·4° Fahr.) is enough to wither the leaves and to kill such roots as are on the surface. A late spring frost is naturally more harmful than a winter one, and damp cold than dry, conditions which apply to all evergreen trees. In this district the altitude at which olive trees can be found may be reckoned at 1,500 feet above the sea-level. As a rule they thrive better on hills than in the plains, because any cold they are subjected to is less damp in the former situation than in the latter. In a temperate season the trees in the plains will bear better than those on the hills. With regard to exposures: in this climate the east and north are preferable as affording less sudden changes than the southern and western exposures, but

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south of the "line" the conditions would be different or perhaps reversed; the main point to be considered being to give the trees as equable a temperature as possible, and to avoid frost and violent autumn winds which are apt to shake down the berries.

Manure.

Olive trees are the better for manure, but the kind of manure used depends, as will be seen, very much upon the nature of the soil in which the tree is planted. Farmyard manure, if well decomposed, may be placed in trenches round the trees, but special care must be taken to put such trenches far enough away from the trees so that the roots are not mutilated by the digging, as they are particularly susceptible to injury from this cause. It is a good plan to soak the husks and refuse of the oil presses in water till they have thoroughly rotted, and then infuse manure and other decaying vegetable matter in the water before placing it in the trenches. Too much manure should not be given at one time, little and often being the golden rule. Of artificial manures, soda is that most frequently used. Lime and silica are necessaries, but care must be taken in applying them that they are not already existent in the soil in sufficient quantities, as if they are abundantly present, more harm than good will be done by their application. Wood ashes and phosphates may safely be mixed with the manures used. The autumn is the best season for the application, as the manures get incorporated into the soil during the winter, and serve to feed the roots more plentifully in the spring. Most trees are the better for being manured annually. Green crops for sheep feeding or cabbage can be grown between the trees without injuring them.

Dead trees, shoots from. Seedlings.

It will be many years before any olive tree in the colonies falls from age, or, being mature dies a natural death. When a tree dies it can be sawn off above ground, and, if the roots are still alive, they will throw out offsets. If these are attended to, and the bottoms of them well covered with earth, they will throw out rootlets, and, when these are well grown the shoot can be cut off with its roots and put into the nursery. One or two good shoots should also be left on the old trunk, as they will throw up and form useful trees. They will require grafting in due time. Where the wild olive tree grows, it is a simple matter to transplant it and graft it, but this will not occur in the colonies for many years to come. The olive will also grow from seed and this, in fact, though it is a slow process, is in the end superior to any other. The trees do better, live longer and are much less liable to disease than those propagated in any other way. The seed will germinate in the second year if left to itself, but, if it is softened by being placed in a pap of clay and cow-dung, and sown

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thus, it will germinate the same year. It is necessary to sow in thoroughly clean ground so as to allow a free and prompt expansion of the rootlets. The ground should be dug three feet deep, thoroughly cleaned and richly manured. This should be done in the winter, and in the spring the surface should be laid out in shallow trenches, in which the seeds should be sown in rows about a foot apart, with a distance between the seeds of not less than six inches. The sharp end of the seeds should be upwards, and they should be treated with a fair amount of water. It is especially essential that the ground should be kept clean, and all weeds immediately removed. In the spring of the third year the seedlings may be moved to the nursery, all shoots appearing on the tiny trunks having been carefully removed.

Propagation by fungi.

The most usual way of propagating the olive is by means of an egg-shaped fungus growth,* which is found upon its roots. It is about the size and much the shape of a turkey's egg, and grows outside the bark. Not more than two of such fungi should be removed from a single tree, or damage will be done to it. Indeed, if propagation is attempted on a large scale, it is better to sacrifice one tree altogether than to run the risk of injuring a greater number. Thus a hundred or more of these fungi can be obtained from a single tree in the winter, besides a great number of slips and grafts in the spring when the tree can be felled and disposed of. The removal of the fungus must be done with care. The wood of the root round it must be carefully sawn or chipped with a sharp axe. A chisel must then be used to undercut the fungus, and finally lift it out of its place. The wood which adheres to it can then be cut off with a sharp knife. If the fungus has plenty of eyes it may be cut up like a seed potato, but it is always advisable to make the pieces so large that each piece should have three or four "eyes." If the fungus has made any roots these should be carefully removed. The best time to take them is in the winter, before the sap begins to rise, and they can be kept till the spring in dry earth, mixed with chaff to soften it. They should be planted in March.

Propagation by cutting.

The only remaining method of propagation is by cuttings. These should be about 18 inches long of which 12 inches should be beneath the surface. The thickest or lower end of the cutting should be cut into the shape of a wedge, be well daubed with cow-dung and covered with garden mould. It can then be planted, care being taken in making the holes not to twist the rod which makes the hole, otherwise the sides of the holes become hard, and the rootlets do not get a sufficient chance of expansion,. Cuttings with boughs to them are treated in the same way, save that the

* We wonder if this is a *real* fungus, or if it is not rather of the nature of a tuber. Hon. Ed.

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cutting is laid in the ground horizontally, but with the thick end lower than the other and the boughs allowed to protrude above the surface. In a year's time the part beneath the surface will be furnished with roots and the boughs with leaves. The whole thing can be taken up each bough separated from the other and the cuttings placed in the nursery.

Grafting.

The oleaster is grafted in the same way as other fruit trees namely either by sawing it off and inserting two or three grafts between the bark and the trees; or by cutting a slit with a transverse cut in the shape of a T, opening up the bark and inserting the graft, or again by cutting away the bark and a portion of the wood from the bough and the graft, making a point of contact of about half an inch, and then binding them strongly together with wool and covering the point with a mixture so as to seal it hermetically. All shoots which occur below the graft should be cut off.

The following is a useful mixture for the purpose of grafting :—

	Per Cent.
Black Swedish pine	28
Burgundy pitch	28
Yellow wax	16
Lard or tallow	14
Ashes	14
Total	100

Nursery.

Much need not be said about the nursery, as this part of the subject is influenced by local conditions which are known on the spot and may perhaps differ materially from conditions prevailing in Europe. It will be useful to mention that the ground in the nursery should not be too rich, because, if it is, the young plants form far fewer roots to feed themselves with than will maintain them in poorer soil, and hence they get a serious check when they are moved to their permanent home where the soil will naturally be poorer than that of the nursery. If, on the other hand, they have been grown in comparatively poor soil they will have made more roots, and will move much better. In whatever way the trees are propagated they should remain eight years in the nursery before going to their permanent home. In the case of

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plants grown from the egg-like fungus a certain amount of careful cultivation is necessary. About six weeks after they are planted, shoots like asparagus heads will appear. In order to give these every chance the ground above them must be kept loose, and if it has become dry and caked it must be watered. From each piece planted some half dozen shoots will rise. Of these only the vigorous straight ones should be preserved, the rest should be carefully pinched off below the surface with the finger and thumb, care being taken not to move the plant which by this time will have made tender rootlets.

Pruning

Not more than two shoots should be left, and these should be trained to sticks. Later on the less vigorous of these should also be removed. The training of all shoots, whether from cuttings, fungus, or any other means of propagation is most necessary. At first, they can be trained to canes or small sticks, but when they begin to make a top it will be necessary to support them with a stout stick and to continue this support till thed have thoroughly taken root in their ultimate home. On hot dry soils, such as will generally prevail in Australia, it is desirable to keep the trunks short. Hence in grafting they should be sawn off from three to four feet above the ground level. In fertile soils in Italy, the height is left at as much as five feet, but in arid soils the rule is "the shorter the better." The fewer boughs left on the stem the better. Some growers cut them all off, but the effect of this is to delay the fruiting of the tree by a year or so. Whether it answers in the long run is a point much disputed, and not very easily capable of proof.

Planting.

Olive trees should be planted not less than 20 feet apart in ordinary soil, but where the soil is good this will not be sufficient, and 40 feet is a safer distance. The holes should be three feet deep, and three feet over, and where the soil allows of it they should be dug two or three months before they are wanted, as exposure to the sun and air is found to fertilise the soil taken out of the holes. It is desirable to put stones, or dry rubbish in the bottom of the holes for drainage, and if the land is damp it will be necessary to drain it, consequently ground with a good fall should always be selected. The best manure consists of the scrapings and fragments of horny substances and ground bones. Deep planting is not recommended, and the trees should be set about six inches deeper than they were in the nursery. The shoots should be pruned in order to stimulate the roots, and a trench or cup left round the tree to collect rainwater.

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If the following season should be a dry one, it will be necessary to water the plants copiously. All shoots that appear on the trunks should be taken off at once, unless they are so situated as to eventually form part of the top of the tree. The best way to take them off is to rub the tree down with a piece of canvas. This not only removes the tender shoots, but prevents the trunks from accumulating lichens and mosses. All plants do not sprout in their first year, it is therefore important to make sure that any plant is dead before taking it up. For three or four years the plants should be left quite alone, after which the weaker boughs should be cut away, care being taken that those which are left are as symmetrical as possible to insure a handsome top to the tree. Boughs can, of course, be pruned and trained into their places if necessary. It is better also to remove roots which are too near the surface, as they prevent the development of the lower roots which are essential to the tree. In the fifth year pruning should be carried out. The dead knob above the grafts should be carefully sawn off obliquely with a sharp saw, and the place covered over with the pitch composition given above to prevent the tree from bleeding. The top should then be carefully pruned so as to secure a shapely tree.

Props.

As the tops will now be getting heavy the trees require more support to save them from the wind which otherwise would displace the roots. Three props should be put to the trunk of each tree, and at the point of contact the tree should be protected by a band of straw, so that the props may not chafe the trunk. It is also necessary, when winter comes on, to bank up the trees by making a trench round the roots, and throwing the earth up against the stem. This must be levelled again in the spring, leaving a circular trench on the upper side of the tree to collect any rain that may fall.

Picking.

From this time onward the pruning of the trees becomes very important, and should be attended to every year as soon as the crop is gathered. It must be remembered that the vertical shoots of an olive do not bear fruit, and that no shoot bears fruit in its first year, so that care must be taken to distinguish between the second year shoots and those of of the first year. Unless the trees are properly pruned the fruit will be small, will give very little oil, and will only yield every other year, whereas with proper pruning the trees may be made to yield every season. The fruit should be hand-picked, or allowed to fall from the tree on to a canvas or sacking

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spread beneath it. The boughs may then be shaken but the tree should on no account be beaten, as this knocks it about and injures the shoots, which will, if left unharmed, bear fruit in the following season. The egg-shaped fungus which we have already mentioned as appearing on the roots of mature trees should all be carefully cut off as soon as they appear, as they take too much out of a growing tree. Local experience alone can decide the best methods for a particular locality, but it may be accepted as a principle that vertical shoots may be taken off, all dead wood removed, and branches which have borne much in the preceding year cut back to allow more nutriment to pass to the others. Too many buds should not be allowed on any branches.

Enemies of the olive.

Dacus oleæ.

Like other fruit trees, the olive has many enemies, Besides the birds we have mentioned, who occasionally atone for their thefts by producing what we are pleased to call "self-sown oleasters," there are numerous insects which attack the fruit, the wood, and the leaves. The most dreaded of these is a small fly called the "Dacus oleæ," which is about half the size of a common house fly. It has a yellow head and green eyes, and an ashy-grey back with gossamer wings. The female has a spur like a wasp with which she punctures the fruit and deposits an egg in the lesion. It is calculated that a single fly will thus destroy three or four hundred olives. These eggs develop into larvæ, which completely tunnel the olive, leaving nothing but the outer shell and the stone. In about a fortnight they assume the chrysalis stage, and about 10 days after that the perfect fly issues. This it will be seen displays an alarming fecundity combined with an extraordinary rapidity of reproduction, and in favourable seasons terrible damage is done. The only known remedy is to gather the fruit early, and by crushing it at once to destroy the larvæ.

Coccus oleæ.

The "Coccus oleæ" is the enemy of the boughs and leaves. It is a parasite which at first sight appears to be a portion of the branch upon which it grows, and upon the sap of which it lives. It also develops a fungus which blackens the boughs. Lime washing and petroleum have both been tried with some measure of success against this pest.

Some growers burn damp straw under the trees in order to fumigate them and destroy insect life, but this must be done with great caution, as the olive is a tree from its

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nature very easily scorched, and very much damaged by scorching both in fruit and foliage. It is not desirable to allow lichen or moss to grow on the bark as it offords a refuge for parasites, and a home for the eggs of insects.

It is, however, reasonable to express the hope that the olive tree when introduced to its new home in the Antipodes will leave all these enemies behind it, and not find new ones to contend with, so that is may grow and prosper till it has bestowed wealth on the Australian continent in the same abundant measure as it has lavished it on the Italian Peninsula for so many centuries.—(*Report of E. Neville-Rolfe, H. B. M's Consul at Naples.*)

Tapping of Indiarubber trees in the Charduar Plantation, Assam.

In reviewing the Assam Forest Report for 1896-97 last month we suggested that it was about "time to begin tapping trees 'which reach 19 ft. in girth and an average height of 77 ft." Since then we have come across the Report of the Imperial Institute for 1896-97, in which we see a letter from the Deputy-Conservator of Forests, Darrang Division, in which he estimates that at each tapping a tree might be expected to yield 4 chittacks. He estimates 12512 trees available, and that these might be tapped once in 5 years, or 2502 trees annually. This would give 15½ maunds per annum, valued at Rs. 105 per maund. Thus, the revenue would be Rs. 162,718 yearly, though as the trees got older and bigger this would propably increase. It certainly looks as if it would be worth while to begin.

The Metallization of Wood.

The following process, invented by Mr. Rubennick, for metallizing wood, is thus described by *Les Mondes* :—The wood is first immersed for three or four days, according to its permeability, in a caustic alkaline lye (calcareous soda) at a temperature of from 75 degrees to 90 degrees. From thence it passes immediately into a bath of hydrosulphite of calcium, to which is added, after 24 or 36 hours, a concentrated solution of sulphur in caustic potash. The duration of this bath is about 48 hours and its temperature is from 35 degrees to 50 degrees. Finally, the wood is immersed for 30 to 50 hours in a hot solution (30° to 50°C) of acetate of lead. The process, as may be seen, is a long one, but the results are surprising. The wood thus prepared after having under-

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gone a proper drying at a moderate temperature, acquires, under a burnisher of hard wood, a polished surface, and assumes a very brilliant metallic lustre. This lustre is still further increased if the surface of the wood be first rubbed with a piece of lead, tin, or zinc, and be afterwards polished with a glass or porcelain burnisher. The wood thus assumes the appearance of a true metallic mirror, and is very solid and resistant.—(*Timber Trades Journal.*)

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

June, 2nd 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—The deliveries for May are nearly identical with those for the same month last year, making the figures for the five months of 1898, 9,100 loads against 8,401 loads for the same period of 1897. Prices have improved a little in London during the month, and the small quantities afloat continued to be turned over at quite satisfactory rates for the sellers.

ROSEWOOD.—Good logs are selling well, but shipments must be kept moderate, as the consumption is small.

SATINWOOD.—EAST INDIA.—If figury, sells fairly well, and stocks are declining.

EBONY.—EAST INDIA.—The only enquiry is for sound wood of good colour and large size.

PRICE CURRENT

Indian Teak	per load	£9 5s.	to	£14 5s.
Rosewood	,, ton	£9	to	£10
Satinwood	,, s. ft.	6d.	to	18d.
Ebony	,, ton	£6	to	£8

Denny, Mott & Dickson's Wood Market Report.

LONDON, 1ST JUNE, 1898.

TEAK.—Deliveries from the Docks in London last month were 1,566 loads as against 1,795 loads for the corresponding

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month of last year. Landings were 630 loads as against 1,737 loads in May, 1897. The Stocks in the Docks analyse at date as follows:—

10,980 Loads of Logs, as against 5, 654 Loads at the same date last year					
2,893	,,	Planks	,,	14,92 ,,	,, ,,
14	,,	Blocks	,,	24 ,,	,, ,,
Total 18,887 Loads				7,170 Loads	,, ,,

Although a delivery from the Docks of 1,566 loads may be considered very satisfactory, yet the enquiry has not been widespread.

The unsettled feeling about finance caused by the American-Spanish war has certainly checked orders for rolling stock from abroad. Advices from the shipping ports continue to shew that the strong demand for teak in India, China, and Japan for constructive purposes, encourages teak-producers to demand prohibitive prices for Europe. The spread of the plague, however, may serve to check business in India, and so tend to European requirements being treated with more consideration than has recently been the case.

Shippers should remember that Europe is the best market for *first-class* timber, and that the attempt to force inferior wood on the European market instead of confining its sale to India and the East is chiefly responsible for such disappointments as make the Indian markets seem more profitable than the market on this side. If good wood is scare enough to justify an increase on present price, consumers on this side will not grudge to pay market value, but they will resist, as they have done hitherto, having bad wood forced upon them. The fact of the active Indian demand for constructive purposes, not so exacting in respect to quality as those of first-class European ship and coach building, should cause shippers to economically adjust the quality of their wood to the respective requirements of their Eastern and European customers.

Merchants on this side may possibly be considered impracticable and over-exacting in regard to quality, but they best know the needs of the home consumer, as well as the danger of other woods being substituted for teak where possible, if its high character as a first-class wood is not maintained by reasonable care on the part of shippers.

The rise in freights, dearer money, and the interruption of foreign orders caused by the American-Spanish war were all conducive to the restriction of business during May. Last week's fall in the Bank rate and the abatement of the general political depression caused the month to close with renewed cheerfulness, and probably the next three or four months will be more affected by holiday considerations than by any renewed cause of acute disturbance. Freights have doubtless

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been jumped, and may fall away with unsettling rapidity, and as cheaper carriage will tend to increase the volume of business, the prospects ahead are more reassuring than hasty pessimists quite recently dared to think.

DENNY, MOTT & DICKSON.

MARKET RATES FOR PRODUCTS.

Tropical Agriculturist, May 1898.

Cardamoms	per	lb.	3s. 2d.	to	3s. 6d.
Croton Seeds	„	cwt.	87s. 6d.	to	90s.
Cutch	„	„	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic, Madras	„	„	27s. 6d.	to	35s.
„ Kino	„	„	12s. 6d.	to	15s.
India rubber, Assam	„	lb.	2s. 6d.	to	3s. 1½d.
„ Burma	„	„	2s. 3d.	to	3s.
Myrabolams, Madras	„	cwt.	4s. 6d.	to	6s.
„ Bombay	„	„	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
„ Jubbulpore	„	„	4s.	to	7s.
„ Calcutta	„	„	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	„	„	7s.	to	7s. 6d.
Oil, Lemon Grass	„	lb.	4½d.		5d.
Sandalwood, Logs	„	ton.	£30	to	£50.
„ Chips	„	„	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood	„	„	£4	to	£8.
Seed lac	„	cwt.	60s.	to	70s.
Tamarinds	„	„	4s.	to	6s.

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THE

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A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN

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ERRATA.

FEBRUARY No. 1898

In Appendix p. 16. value of Exports of rosin *for* '£ 4732 *read* '£ 4372,' and *for* '£ 2416' *read* '£ 2776'
And, in table in para 22, column 5, *for* '416 cwt' *read* '34,416 cwt.'

JUNE No. 1898.

p. 209, last line but 9, *for* 'Cotten' *read* 'Cotton,'
p. 210, line 34, *for* 'Thwaitesü' *read* 'Thwaitesii.'
p. 218, line 9 from below, *for* 'febrifuga' *read* 'febrifuga.'

JULY No. 1898.

p. 247, last line but four, *for* 'Belgium' *read* 'Belgian.'
p. 254, line 16, *for* 'Buchmania' *read* 'Buchanania.'
line 17, *for* 'Salbar' *read* 'Salhar.'
line 20, *for* 'Bauchinia' *read* 'Bauhinia.'
last line, *for* 'gelatinising' *read* 'gelatinizing.'
p. 256, line 9 from below, *for* 'Banhinia' *read* 'Bauhinia.'
p. 267, last line but one, *for* 'manæuvering' *read* 'manœuvring.'
p. 271. line 17, *for* 'external' *read* 'extreme'; and *for* 'large' *read* 'long.'
p. 272. line 8, *for* 'less' *read* 'low.'
p. 273, line 9, *for* 'angles' *read* 'angle.'
p. 274, line 1, *for* 'in' *read* on.'
line 12. *for* 'small' *read* 'single.'
line 29. *for* 'nosed' *read* 'soft-nosed.'
line 38, *for* 'in' *read* 'on.'
line 43, *for* 'is' *read* 'it.'
p. 275, line 22, *for* 'pursiut' *read* 'pursuit.'
p. 287, line 25, *for* 'Rs.162,718' *read* 'Rs. 1627-As. 8

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THE

INDIAN FORESTER.

Vol. XXIV.] August, 1898. [No. 8.

Some Remarks on the Moharbhanj Working Plan Report.

When reading the review on the Moharbhanj Working Plan Report in the June "Forester," I noticed that a rule had been devised for regulating in practice the density of overhead cover in a Sâl forest. The phrase runs :—"The crowns of seed-bearers are 'to be kept dense enough to touch when swayed by the wind, 'until such time as a young crop is obtained." I concluded that the Working Plan Officer intended, not as here set forth, to operate on the crowns but to keep the stems of the seed bearers so close that their crowns might in given circumstances touch, and I considered the subject from that point of view.

In a seedling Sâl forest with any claim to vigour, the minimum girth of a seed-bearer should not be under 4 ft. and stems of this size with developed crowns, implying long freedom from lateral pressure, should be so infrequent as to be left out of consideration. The higher girth classes again are not much affected by wind; the habit of the Sâl is opposed to swaying; it withstands in its rigidity or breaks, but does not bend. It would appear, then, that the rule would not serve in practice, a Sâl seed-bearer in the majority of cases should not sway, and even if it did, the definition simply implies that stems of from 4 ft. to 8 ft. girth should be retained in sufficient numbers so that their crowns remain in close proximity until a young crop is obtained.

But such a prescription even, vague as it is, is open to objection. It infers that throughout the Sâl forests of Moharbhanj, it is in contemplation to produce by artificial means a more or less equally diffused shade of varying intensity, and to maintain it until a young crop is obtained. The creation of this ideal canopy by favoring the growing stock is easy, but until the Forester of Moharbhanj breaks through it, allowing the establishment of groups of advance growth over small but distinct areas, he will not be satisfied with the result. He may, indeed, obtain a crop of young seedlings in spite of the uniform canopy, but these will bide their time until accidental interruptions of the overhead cover

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permit a forward growth. I too, once dreamt of healthy advance growth of Sâl standing in well-represented age classes under the even shade of the parent stems ; I woke to find that the community is composed of family groups, each in itself complete ; and that the removal of the head of the house by axe or natural decay, was the signal for self assertion in the offspring, followed by a lengthy struggle in the hope of filling the vacant post.

Mechanical regulations to be useful must be more definite than this ; and they are even then inapplicable in a forest where the circumstances of each family group have to be considered, and where, within the area of a few acres, all those varied operations which in combination form one general system of management may, for the benefit of the forest, be in progress at one time. The possibility of the forest will indeed be limited by the condition of the canopy ; but it will not be increased, as the reviewer leads us to infer is the opinion of the Working Plan Officer, by maintaining the overhead cover more or less complete over the whole area.

Sleepers on the North-Western Railway.

We give below an extract from a paper in the "Indian and Eastern Engineer" for June by Mr. V. E. DeBroë, M. I. C. E., which gives an account of the laying of the permanent-way on the North-Western Railway and of the sleepers used, which we are sure will be read with interest by many officers of the Department, and especially by such of them as are employed in the working of the forests of the Punjab and North-Western Provinces, Kashmir and other Native States. Such Officers will readily notice the various inaccuracies and will smile at the naive advice to Government and the Rulers of the Native States to "kill the goose." With the exception perhaps of those of some small States, we believe we are right in saying that the whole of the deodar forests are under "Working Plans" or at any rate "Plans of Operation" devised to ensure that no more is cut than is warranted by the estimated permanent Annual Yield. We wonder where the writer got the notion that the deodar forests were 'practically inexhaustible' and many of us would like to know where are the 'virgin forests to the rear' which 'stand totally unexploited'? Mr. McDonell might perhaps tell us if any exist in Kashmir. If they do, their presence has probably been fully taken account of in the calculation of the Annual Yield. What a lovely mess the proposed Company would make of the deodar forests, and what a fine profit they would put into their own pockets, with the "Managing Director at Lahore" the "Government concession," and the "guarantee of custom from the State Railways;"

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and how they would rejoice to have cleared out everything and left the Railways and other users of deodar timber, the joy of waiting another fifty years or so till the next crop came! And as regards the "successful exploitation of teak," probably Mr. Ribbentrop and the Burma Conservators could tell us some interesting stories of the other side of the question. Luckily, of course, there is very little chance of Government or Rulers like the Maharaja of Kashmir being taken in by transparent advice of this kind. With these remarks, we leave our reader to study Mr. De Broë's paper.

Permanent-way.—On the road being taken over from the Company, a careful survey of the permanent-way was made. Save on the first few miles out of Karachi, over which a double-headed steel rail, weighing 68lbs., had replaced the old iron road, the 65lb. iron rail, described by Mr. Brunton on page 15, was still carrying the traffic, and but for the fact that a heavier class of engine was introduced by Government, would have probably served for some years to come, with a moderate programme of annual renewals. The iron was of excellent quality, and the best of the rails are still in use on sidings devoid of through-running. The 68lb. steel rail, though somewhat light, has been retained in the interests of economy, but the whole of the remainder of the road to Kotri has been relaid with a 75lb. steel flat-footed rail. A long six-holed steel fish-plate was introduced which, however, proved of doubtful efficiency as compared with the four-holed type, as its length prevented the joint sleepers being placed sufficiently close together, and the full number of bolts held the two contiguous rails so firmly as to arrest natural expansion, thus causing the road to buckle. Eventually, two of the four fish-bolts were removed. A later and much superior type of fish-plate, four-holed and of angular section, was used on the new down-line. The 75lb. rails are of 30 feet length.

As regards sleepers, probably the whole of those laid in Mr. Brunton's time had disappeared. Certainly no English pickled Pine remained, and with the exception of a few miles at the Karachi end, laid with Denham and Olpherts' iron sleepers, the whole road was laid with deodar. Under the 68lb. steel rail these were comparatively new, but the rest were on their last legs. The whole road, therefore, underwent sleeper renewals. Facilities for obtaining deodar sleepers, which are undoubtedly the best for the Indian climate, are, of course, far greater than 30 years ago, but the demand has increased enormously and the supply falls far short of it. A few miles were spared from the Punjab for the renewals in question, but the greater part of the road was relaid with the pea-pod steel transverse sleeper. A few miles were also laid experimentally with teak from Singapore, and a few

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miles with a class of timber claimed by the providers to be Burmah pingado, but which, on being subjected to examination by a botanical expert attached to the Forest Department, was pronounced to be an inferior description of jungle wood. Ten sleepers per 30 feet rail were at first used, but it was found a better road, less liable to creep, was obtained by using eleven sleepers. The rails were spiked down in the ordinary way, double spikes being used at the joints. Bearing-plates were used on each sleeper on open bridges and at all joint sleepers in the road.

The new down-line was laid partly with a 77½lb. bull-headed rail, seated in heavy chairs fastened to the timber sleepers by four round spikes and keyed with wooden (Babul) keys, and the greater portion with the 75lb. flat-footed rail. Many miles of real Burmah pingado sleepers were imported for this job. Some miles were laid with deodar, and quite half of the distance, or over 50 miles, consisted of what are classed as "Indian Midland Pots," a cast-iron bowl sleeper giving a long bearing to the flat-footed rail, the flange of which is keyed to the pot with a steel key. The fishing on the new line is with the four-holed steel angular plate.

Of the various descriptions of the permanent-way in use on the North-Western Railway (and they include many varieties besides those above-mentioned), unquestionably the best class of road, for a heavy traffic, is a double-headed rail weighing not less than 75lbs. per yard, heavy four-holed chairs, deodar sleepers—eleven or even twelve (on curves) to the 30ft. rail—and the angular four-holed fish-plate. The flat-footed rail on timber sleepers cuts through them in time, even with a liberal use of bearing-plates, and the spikes draw when once the timber begins to decay. This class of rail, both when on timber and bowl sleepers, creeps badly, which causes joints to lap and a difficulty in keeping the gauge true. The Denham and Olpherts' road is too weak in the tie-bar, which buckles, causing a displacement in the gauge, and the wheel flanges invariably, after a time, are found to ride on the jaws of the casting, into which the rail fits. The Singapore teak sleepers and the so-called pingado put into the up-line proved worthless, being quite unfitted to the climate. The timber suffered from dry rot, and split badly in the sun. The steel pea-pod sleeper is useless where exposed to the slightest damp in the soil or to the action set up by saltpetre; in these circumstances, it perishes rapidly from corrosion, giving way, to begin with, under the rail seat. Even when laid in the driest of situations, where oxidation does not take place, there are objections to it. The platelayer complains that he can never keep this class of road to gauge. Owing to the elasticity of the metal

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or inequality in distance apart of the lugs or difference in thickness of the keys, it is certainly most difficult to maintain two contiguous rail lengths to precisely one and the same gauge. Fast trains, moreover, throw the road out of straight, and when the platelayer sets to work to slew the road back into line, he finds the spring in the permanent-way throws the next pair of rails out. Another objection is that the joint sleepers fall too far apart, and the attempt to place them nearer is met by the impossibility of driving the joint keys unless they are cut. Of the real pingado sleepers, it may be said, that they are good. They split to a certain extent, but the timber is hard and heavy and the splits do not destroy the tenacity of the fibre, as in the case, for instance, of the Singapore teak. But the pingado is most expensive. Those laid cost Rs. 6-12 landed at Kimari, whereas a deodar sleeper can be obtained for Rs. 3-8 including rail carriage from the Punjab. As regards the "Indian Midland Pots," it is doubtless a vast improvement on the old cast-iron pot, but it does not support the web of the rail laterally, the fastenings being in contact with the flange only, and it is a question whether the tie-bars will not be found to buckle as they do on all pot roads hitherto designed. Creosoted pine from England or Norway are expensive, and their defects, as pointed out by Mr. Brunton on page 16, are as apparent in the present day as they were when he wrote. Babul wood and the other indigenous timbers mentioned by the author are worthless, as they do not stand the climate, and the Burnettising, and other chemical processes mentioned, have long since been abandoned.

Deodar is the best material for the whole of the north-west of India's dry climate. It is cheap; white ants do not attack it seriously; it does not suffer under derailments to the same extent as cast-iron; it is light and, therefore, portable; it can be floated down the five great rivers of the Punjab at a nominal cost for carriage; it is of use for crib work on flood breaches where cast-iron is useless, and it has a life of quite 20 years, or even 25, if fairly treated by the maintenance engineer.

Now the provision of sleepers for renewals alone, quite apart from railway extension, is, considering the enormous mileage now open, becoming a burning question. By multiplying this mileage by 2.000 sleepers (to include sidings and double portions) and dividing by a life of 20 years, we arrive at an enormous figure representing the annual requirements for the upkeep of our lines, and applying the simple formula to the whole of the North-Western and the Rajputana-Malwa Systems, as well as to a portion of the East Indian and the Oudh and Rohilkand Railways, we learn how immense to Government the advantage would be of further developing the trade in deodar timber. The existing arrangements for supply are based on no preconceived plan, and are partly in the hands of private merchants, and partly of the Forest

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Department. The deodar forests are said to be inexhaustible, but the zone of felling operations is limited by want of communication. Such portions of the forests as are close to the river come under the axe, while virgin forests to the rear stand totally unexploited. The native timber merchants now in the field have neither the capital nor the enterprise to launch out on a bolder scale of operations, and the Forest Department, with a small staff of officers, regards the sale of timber as but a concomitant to its more legitimate business of promoting the growth of trees. A strong Company, based on sterling capital, and backed with a Government concession and a guarantee from the State Railways of the continuance of their custom over a period of years, would find ample scope for their operations. Roads, portable railways, here and there a funicular railway, steam saw-mills, etc., would have to be pushed into the interior, and a staff of European agents thoroughly conversant with the natives and having a technical knowledge of the characteristics of a good sleeper, would be required; the whole to be entrusted to a Managing Director with head-quarters at Lahore, who would be in touch with the managers of the various railways. The teak forests of Burmah have been successfully exploited somewhat after this fashion, and there seems to be no reason why the Himalayan pine should not be dealt with in the same manner. Failing private enterprise, it would pay Government in the Public Works Department to establish a special branch to insure a constant flow of sleepers to their railways, and possibly it would be better worked by the State than a Company, because large forest areas lie in Native States, and political questions would arise. The price of deodar in log, delivered by flotation down the rivers, is now about 12 annas per cubic foot, and with methodical arrangements as above outlined, this would no doubt, fall appreciably, and the supply of cast-iron sleepers from Europe would find the keenest of competition in the indigenous material.

In dealing with the cost of the permanent-way in the present day, as compared with 30 years ago, we meet with a difficulty, as Mr. Brunton makes no mention of price of rails and fastenings, and there appear to be no records on hand; but the cost of the metals is unimportant, because any difference would be attributable to the fluctuations in the home metal marts. The Company's sleepers cost them, as stated by the author on page 16, from 6*s* to 8*s* 11*d*. each, or say Rs. 3 to Rs. 4½, which is cheaper than now, a deodar costing not less than Rs. 3½, a pingado quite Rs. 7, and an Indian Midland Pot about Rs 8. The original expenditure on plate-laying, however, appears to have been very high. Six shillings a lineal yard, £528 to a mile, amounting to the enormous sum of £57,000 for linking in 108 miles of line, is somewhat startling. To this sum, moreover, has to be added inland freight on 5,500 tons (or about half the total quantity of rails), amounting to 2*s* 6*d*. per ton, or nearly £6,000, so that the plate-laying, including

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carriage, amounted to nearly £63,000. Omitting the latter item, which is not comparable with the cheap railway freight of the present time, the work which cost 6*s*. per lineal yard, would now be estimated at not more than Re. 1 per lineal yard, equal to 2*s*. of those days or one-third the rate, and this would be a liberal estimate. The rail renewals on the Karachi district, including pick-up trains for the condemned material, cost Rs. 1,000 per mile, or 9 annas per yard, and the plate-laying on the doubling (where carriage of material was simpler, owing to having the adjacent line, than it would be on construction plate-laying carried out telescopically), was done at an initial cost of 4 annas per yard, which totalled up to 8 annas when train charges, tools, boxing, packing and maintaining the road in a fit condition for construction trains for several months was included. This is one-sixth of the cost of the plate-laying on the Scinde Railway. The figures do not appear even to include plate-laying on sidings, for the number of yards, quoted by Mr. Brunton on page 10, represent 110 miles only, rather less than the length of the main line, which is quoted as 108 miles 10 chains + 3 miles 15 chains double-line near Ghizree Junction. As labour in those days was cheaper than it is now, the only conceivable way to account for this heavy outlay on linking in, is to suppose that the work was carried out before engines and rolling-stock were available, and that the material was all conveyed to the rail-head by country carts, or, at best, by material trolleys, and that the enormous amount of labour, required for such a method, swallowed up the money, though, as the author speaks of water-trains for the staff being run on the construction, this seems hardly likely. Even assuming that the item includes laying of all points and crossings in station yards,' the rate is out of all proportion. One remaining explanation, perhaps, offers itself, *viz*:, that possibly a portion of the expenditure on ballast-spreading may have improperly found its way into Mr. Brunton's accounts under the heading of "leading and laying." Adverting to page 18 of this paper, some difficulty was found in reconciling the relative cost of stone-ballasting and rock-cutting, both of which Mr. Brunton averaged out about 1*s* 6*d*. per cubic yard, whereas leading and spreading would, one would suppose, place the former item at a somewhat higher figure. Be this as it may, we can only view that gentleman's report from his own figures, which go to show that plate-laying, on the construction, cost fully three to six times what it now does on the same line. Considerable allowance must, however, in justice be made for unskilled labour, with which the pioneer engineers had to deal, as compared with the trained plate-layers, who now abound. The new permanent-way on the doubling, laid complete with deodar sleepers, cost about Rs. 22,000 per mile, and with Indian Midland pots, Rs. 10,000 per mile more.

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The Forester on leave.

DEAR MR. EDITOR.—The rate of production of poetry in the Indian Forester is about one piece in ten years. I am old enough to remember two. In the first, "denizen" and "venison" were made to rhyme and I have never eaten the latter without an effort since. The second was corrected by the Editor, and utterly ruined. Our faith in you is greater: you will neither permit the publication of scandalous rhymes nor assert your prerogative in such an aggravating way.

It is a matter of notoriety. I have it in writing, that if a Forest Officer is scientific he is liable to be called a something-ologist, or if he is sporting a something-shikari: no doubt if he tries to be amusing he will be classed as a blooming idiot, but once his status is assured as such, his scientific or sporting attainments will be overlooked, and will do him no great harm.

To keep up the average poetical outturn of the Forester, I enclose an effort in which truth and sentiment are touchingly blended. There is no extra charge, the usual prize remuneration will satisfy one who feels that he is utterly ignorant of the first principles of rhyme and singing, provided always you conceal his identity under the well known name of

B-R-N.

GOING.

Indian Forests! ere I start,
Let me first the truth impart.
Joy and hope have left my breast
And I'm weary for a rest:
Hear me swear before I stray,
I'll see you—further—ere I stay!

By malaria unconfined,
Wafted in each sultry wind,
By those swamps whose reedy fringe
Accents the landscape's sickly tinge,
By each solitary day,
I'll see you—further—ere I stay!

By the sport I long to taste,
But find there is no need for haste,
By all the written snubs that tell
What words can never speak so well,
By fires and heat in genial May,
I'll see you—further—ere I stay!

Indian Forests! I am gone!
You may regret this when alone,
But though I fly from your embrace
Another fool will take my place.
He too will suffer the same way,
But *I'll* be——before *I* stay.

RETURNING.

Indian Forests! ere we meet,
My soul goes out my love to greet.
I'll sing your praises, for perchance,
Our meeting won't my love enhance
Hear me swear before I come,
I long for you, and you alone.

By the life so unconfined,
By winter mornings' bracing wind,
By the grey plains' verdant fringe
Recalling emerald's glancing tinge,
By the camp fire when work is done,
I long for you, and you alone.

By the sport I long to taste,
By gun and rod that bid me haste.
By all the jungle signs that tell,
What words can never speak so well.
By plains and "mountain forests [dun,"
I long for you, and you alone.

Indian Forests! I am come,
(I'm not so sure it feels like home).
But though I wanted to delay,
I couldn't stick it on half pay.
So thus when all is said and done,
I long for you, but *not* alone.

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II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

The I. F. S. Colours.

SIR,—Your readers may like to know how the matter stands. Votes have come in from about two-thirds of the officers in the Imperial Service, which shows that interest is taken in the question. Among the voters, about one-third would like stripes, while two-thirds prefer plain dark green, with a monogram I.F.S, as badge. Thus much is now settled. Other suggestions for the badge were, the royal arms, elephant and wreath, crossed axes and wreath, tiger's head and crossed axes, hunting horn and wreath, stag and crossed axes, etc. The large samples asked for from home have not yet arrived. In the meantime, it would be a favour if you would let me ask those who are interested to send me, on a post card, replies to the following questions, as soon as possible.

1. Shall we have a narrow piping round the coat, or braid, or nothing?

2. What kind of buttons? green cloth, black horn, or silver? (not military buttons, but thin, almost flat ones like sleeve solitaires, say three-fourth inch diameter, plain or with some engraved device).

3 As the replies to the above will have fixed the colours in their main lines, and as it will take a long time to circulate shades of colours, &c., to Conservators and others all over India and Burma, will you allow a Committee of Foresters on the spot here to settle finally the details of shades of colour, monogram, &c.? The Officers here are, our Editor, Messrs. Gradon, Osmaston, Caccia, Milward, and myself, and perhaps we may obtain the benefit of the advice of Messrs. Rogers and Lovegrove. By the time replies are in, I hope to have the samples, and then the Committee can at once prepare a coat, or if the Committee is not approved, I shall do so, and circulate it for opinion.

F. GLEADOW,
Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun.

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Valuation Surveys.

DEAR SIR,—May I be allowed to reply to Mr. Hodgson's letter on "Valuation Surveys" in your March number, in his own words.

"In any case, what the object of these complications is, is not apparent." "A knowledge of this simple fact would save much useless labour."

I must apologize to Mr. Hodgson, however, for divorcing his words from the context.

BARCHAFF, GHATI.

26*th April*, 1898.

We regret that by an oversight our correspondent's letter was mislaid. It should have appeared in May or June.

Hon. Ed.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

White-ants and Forest trees.

The following extract from a papper in the Agricultural Ledger on "White-ants as a pest of Agriculture," ought to be reproduced in our pages. It was written in May 1896 by the Settlement Officer of Balaghat, C. P.

In our opinion the 'Scientific Forester' was right, and that the mango saplings planted by the Agriculturist died because they were badly planted and their roots got rotten, and then of course a legitimate prey for the termites. Very likely they were torn ruthlessly out of a nursery, left with such roots as they had, exposed to the sun for an hour or two, and then planted in a water-logged pit 6 inches below the surface of the ground. Our description of the process is not exaggerated. We have seen it carried out in various parts of the country. We hope that some of our readers will discuss the subject.

"White-ants are especially fond of young mango trees. In 'some villages, repeated efforts to make a mango grove have failed 'on account of the roots of the young trees being attacked by 'white-ants. I once doubted this fact, and was disposed to believe 'that in those villages the people were unusually negligent in 'watering the saplings, and that first the trees died of thirst and

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'then the white-ants devoured the dead wood, as is their ordinary 'practice. A scientific forester had told me that white-ants attack- 'ed only dead wood, and hence my scepticism as to the statement 'of the villagers ; but I am now convinced that the saplings in 'many cases die of white-ants and not of other causes, that the 'attacks of the white-ants on the roots are the cause, and not 'the effect, of the trees drying up."

"The cause that led me to this perception of the truth is that 'I have attempted to raise a row of half a dozen mango trees close 'behind my bungalow, and I have had a number of the saplings 'die, they being in most cases attacked by white-ants. I have 'dug up three of the trees in different stages of the white-ant 'disease. One of the plants was almost dead, and it would have 'been difficult to prove that the white-ants were not innocent 'scavengers, removing useless dry wood. Another tree was half- 'dead, and the theory that exonerates the white-ant from the 'charge of devouring living timber, could only be maintained by 'crediting the termite with a marvellously accurate prophetic 'instinct that told the scavenger which of the trees were already 'doomed to die and might be removed as useless, for the tree 'was not yet dead but only likely to die shortly. In the third case 'the tree still looked quite green, save for a suspicion of unhealthi- 'ness about some of its leaves, and on digging it up I found that its 'roots had been eaten through in places by white-ants, and that 'a detachment of the voracious termites was actually pushing its 'way up the heart of the sapling, eating its path through per- 'fectly good, juicy wood. The sight of a channel about $\frac{1}{8}$th of 'an inch wide thus eaten out up the very centre of a sapling, 'appeared to me to be conclusive proof that the mango tree was 'dying from the attacks of white-ants, pure and simple, and that 'the theory I had heard put forth in the name of Science by a 'Forest Officer, was untenable. That theory appears to me to con- 'fuse two cases : (*i*) that in which white-ants attack young trees 'a few feet high, eating out the heart of the tree, full of sap 'though it is, and doing their work of destruction unseen below 'the surface, and (*ii*) that in which white-ants ascend the *outside* 'of a tree in search, presumably, of dead branches on top.

"The attacks of the first of the above kinds are not confined 'to young trees. I have found fields of *tur* in which a number of 'the plants have withered owing to the roots being eaten up by 'white-ants, and in gram fields also I have had similar damage 'pointed out to me."

"If, then, it be considered as proved, that white-ants do con- 'siderable damage to horticulture by attacking the roots of living 'trees, the question of finding some preventative against their 'ravages becomes one of practical importance. I have made en- 'quiries as to remedies against the attacks of termites and found 'that the popular preventatives are numerous and not usually 'efficacious."

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"The cultivator starts with the belief that the white-ants 'have a delicate sense of taste or smell, and exercise their in-'genuity in inventing nauseous mixtures with which to water 'the suffering plant. Water, in which fish has been allowed to 'decompose, is believed to be as almost as strong in efficacy 'as in stench. Solutions of salt or tobacco are about the most 'popular of remedies. The *àl* dye I have heard of in this con-'nection, but it is not thus used locally. The burying of *gur* in a 'hole near the tree, in the hope that black-ants will be attracted 'thereby and will incidentally eat up the white-ant colony, has 'been put forward by villagers. I have also been told to utilize 'the fact, that bears are greedy eaters of white-ants, and to soak 'a bear skin in water and put the termites to flight by applying 'the resulting liquor, highly impregnated with the smell or taste 'of their enemy's skin."

"None of these proposals are believed in very much by the 'people. I have myself tried a decoction of salt and tobacco 'with some effect, but the young trees are not thriving on the 'diet any more than the white-ant is. The question of finding 'a cheap and efficacious remedy is, I submit, worth an enquiry 'over a larger area than I have been able to arrange for."

Note on the Cultivation of Black Pepper in Assam.

By B. C. Basu.

It is not perhaps generally known that black pepper is cultivated as a garden crop in certain parts of Assam. The writer of the article on black pepper (*Piper nigrum*) in Dr. Watt's Dictionary of Economic Products, does not mention its cultivation in Assam; the only reference made in that article to Assam is to the effect that black pepper is doubtfully indigenous in the forests of this province.* I have found black pepper being grown in many villages in the Sibsagar district. It is chiefly found in some villages in mauza Gadhuli Bazar in the west of the Sadar subdivision. In this mauza is a village, Jalukgaon, named after the Assamese word for black pepper. It is currently reported to have been the chief seat of pepper cultivation at one time. In Lower Assam the cultivation of black pepper is reported to be unknown. On the other hand, a little of it is to be found in Sylhet and on the southern slopes of the Khasia Hills, bordering on that

* From enquiries I have made, black pepper does not appear to occur in the wild state in any part of the Assam Valley, but an allied species (*P. longum*) the *pipal* or long pepper, is so found.

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district. The crop is not, however, cultivated to any appreciable extent in any part of Assam. It is usually cultivated to supply the cultivator's own requirements, and what is left over after meeting his own wants, is sold. The aggregate quantity of black pepper produced in Assam is indeed very small, and very little of it finds its way to the market. Assam continues to derive its supply of this spice chiefly from Calcutta, although there is no apparent reason why it should not grow the whole of it, and have more to spare.

The black pepper vine is known in Assam as *gách jaluk*, and the spice locally produced as *guti jaluk* or *bári jaluk*, the latter name owing its origin to the fact of the spice being the produce of an Assamese *bári* or homestead, as distinguished from the usual commercial product, which, from its being sold by shopkeepers, is known as *golar jaluk*. Only one variety of cultivated black pepper is known in Assam. The Assam pepper seed is slightly smaller in size than the foreign product which comes through Calcutta. The indigenous article is, however, more pungent, perhaps because it is more fresh, and, therefore commands a higher price in the local market.

In Assam, the black pepper vine, like the betel vine (*Piper betel*), is usually grown on betel-nut trees (*Areca Catechu*). Mango (*Mangifera indica*), jack (*Artocarpus integrifolia*), and other garden trees are occasionally utilised for the purpose; but of all trees, betel-nut is regarded as the most convenient and suitable for raising *pán* and black pepper. It is planted immediately around the raiyat's homestead, and receives more manure, labour and care than any other tree or crop grown by him. The rearing of betel and pepper vines in association with this tree entails but little additional labour on the cultivator. The plucking of the leaf in the case of *pán*, and of the ripe berry in the case of black pepper, is also very convenient when these are grown on the betel-nut trees, as by the simple application of a ladder every part of the vine can be easily and quickly reached.

The pepper vine is raised either from suckers which spring up from underground roots or from shoots from the stem. Shoots, when used, are bent down into the ground to strike root before they are severed from the mother plant. The young plants are taken out with their roots at the beginning of the rains, and transplanted at the foot of the trees on which they are intended to grow. Generally, only one plant is put down at the foot of each tree. The slender stem of the young vine requires in the beginning to be carefully tied on to the supporting tree. As it grows up, it throws out from each joint numerous bunches of short, claw-like adventitious roots, which penetrate into the

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soft outer bark of the supporting tree, and give the vine a firm hold upon the latter. New shoots and suckers continue to appear, and, growing up the tree, envelop it in the course of a few years with a dense mass of foliage.

The subsequent treatment of the black pepper plant cannot be distinguished from that of the betel-nut tree, with which it is mostly associated. Like the latter, it requires to be very liberally manured. Cowdung and household refuse are the only manures in use in Assam, and of these as much is given as the cultivator can afford. The manure is applied at the end of the rains and at intervals all through the cold weather. It is simply heaped up round the base of the tree on which the vine grows, and affords nutrition to both. The manure heap serves the further purpose of protecting the vine from cold and drought. To keep in the moisture in the manure heap, pieces of the thick juicy bark of a plantain tree are ranged round the base of the tree and renewed from time to time. A betel-nut plantation, whether *pán* or pepper be grown there or not, must be hoed, and cleaned once in the year at the close of the monsoon rains; a careful cultivator would repeat the operation thereafter and until the rains again set in, as often as he could spare time and labour for the purpose. The ground should be kept as clean and free of jungle as possible at all times of the year. In May, the manure heaps are levelled down and spread over the ground, otherwise they would absorb too much moisture and cause the roots of the vine to rot.

The pepper vine is very susceptible to drought, which often proves fatal. Rain and fog in the cold weather cause the leaves to fall off, and are consequently dreaded by the cultivators. The plants then remain bare until the first warm showers of April, when new leaves re-appear. Hailstorms are a frequent source of injury to black pepper and other crops in Assam. Some damage is also caused by a species of caterpillar which feeds on the leaves of the pepper vine. When it appears, it is destroyed, as far as possible, by hand-picking.

The black pepper vine begins to bear in from three to five years after planting, and continues to yield for at least twenty years. In every plantation, there are usually one or more vines which neither flower nor fruit. These are called *matá* or males, and the rest which bear fruit are known as females. The vine flowers in May, and the berries are plucked in December. They are gathered when just beginning to ripen. If allowed to ripen fully, they fall off and are picked off by birds. Pepper is cured in two different ways. If intended for the cultivator's own use, the berries would be boiled in water for a few minutes in order to soften the husk, which would then be removed by rubbing the

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berries over a bamboo basket. The spice so prepared is of a whitish colour, and more pungent than the kind prepared for the market. For this latter purpose, the berries are simply dried in the sun after boiling, and allowed to retain the husk, which assumes a black colour, and gives the black pepper of commerce its distinctive name.

The produce of a vine varies with its age and size and the character of the season. The highest outturn that can be obtained from a single vine is said to be about three seers of dry cured pepper; the average yield is commonly reported to be about one seer for each vine in a plantation. The retail price of Assam black pepper varies from 10 annas to a rupee per seer, and the wholesale price from Rs. 17 to Rs. 20 per maund. An acre of betel-nut plantation can hold about 500 trees, and if each tree had a pepper vine on it, the annual yield of pepper alone from the plantation might amount to over 112 maunds, valued wholesale at Rs. 200 to Rs. 250.—(*Bulletin of the Agricultural Dept., Assam*).

IV.—REVIEWS.

The Timber Pines of the Southern United States.

The United States Deptartment of Agriculture, Division of Forestry has brought out its Bulletin No. 13, under the above title. It is the work of Dr. Chas. Mohr, and contains also a discussion of the structure of the wood by Mr. Filibert Roth. This is one of the important series of productions which, under the able guidance of its chief, Dr. B.E. Fernow, the Division of Forestry is engaged in bringing out for the purpose of educating the American public and bringing it to regard its forests as something more than mere "lumber" to be cut and sold, and tapped, and burnt, on the principle of "devil take the hindmost." Under the free and enlightened constitution of the States, Jack is as good as his master, only more so, hence the necessity for going slow. For this reason the most urgent forest needs of the country have to be deferred and discussed, put off and talked over, until after the lapse of precious years there is a sufficient body of public opinion to allow of something being done. In most countries the evolution of Forestry has begun with a body of practical men organising the working of the State forests in a thoroughly practical manner, and crowning the edifice later with the study of accurate scientific details. The States have reversed the process. They have a scientific branch of the highest excellence, but as yet they have

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no forests to speak of under management, and hardly a single Working Plan. They have, it is true, recently appointed about a dozen men to manage the Continent at large, and they have taken some steps towards the formation of reserves. It need not be said that the work has begun at the wrong end, for circumstances are different in the States, and our good wishes are heartily with the Division in its efforts to realise the practical results of its teaching.

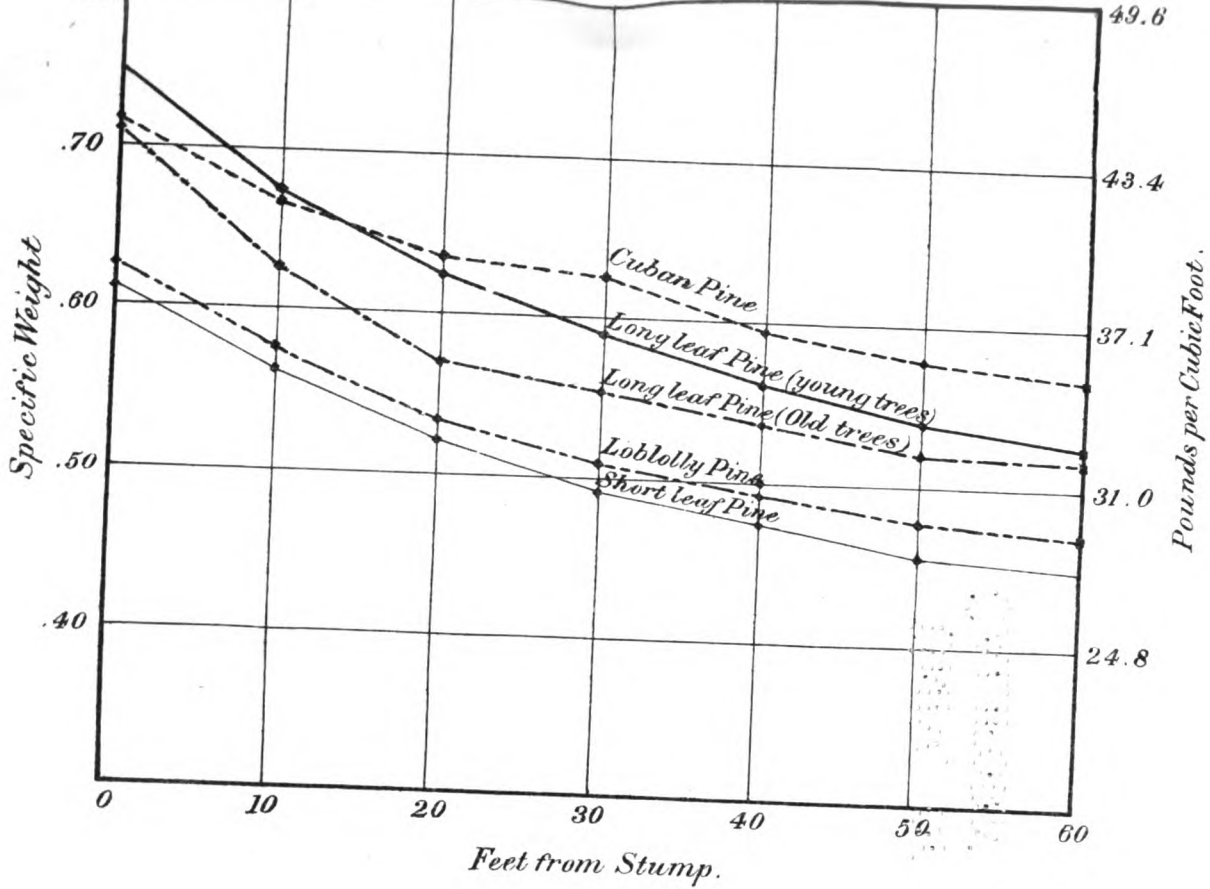
The contribution of Dr. Mohr, though thorough and valuable, will not be of great importance in India, and therefore calls for short notice. It is a resumé of the life-history, commercial and technical properties of the Southern pines, and contains a number of useful tables which have been laboriously compiled or ascertained by experiment, and excellent plates of the species referred to, *viz.*, *Pinus palustris*, *P. heterophylla*, *P. echinata*, *P. taeda*, *and P. glabra*. Mr. Filbert Roth's work covers the structure of the wood, not only as regards the annual rings, spring and summer wood, sap and heartwood, about which he has much that is both new and of interest to say, but also in the minutest histological details of pith rays, resin canals, parenchyma, tracheids, and pores. The plates are from drawings under the microscope, admirably clear and well executed. These are also scattered through the work, three good maps and various plates in half-tone, repropuced from photographs, in illustration of the trees, the forests, and the method of utilization, which add greatly to the beauty and usefulness of the work. It is a pity that these publications are not more widely available to foresters in India.

Dr. Fernow himself contributes an introduction in which he laments that "the greater portion of the primeval forest has 'not only been culled of its best timber, but the repeated con-'flagrations which follow the lumbering, and still more dis-'astrously, the turpentine gatherer's operations, have destroyed not 'only the remainder of the original growth, but the vegetable 'mould and the young after-growth, leaving thousands of square 'miles as blackened wastes." He then describes the locality inhabited by each species. "There are, in general, four belts of 'pine forest of different types recognizable, their boundaries run-'ning in general direction somewhat parallel to the coast line: '(1) the coast plain, or pine-barren flats, within the tide-water 'region, 10 to 30 miles wide, once occupied mainly by the most 'valuable of Southern timbers, the Longleaf Pine (*P. palustris*) 'now being replaced by Cuban (*P. heterophylla*) and Loblolly, '(*P. taeda*) pines; (2) the rolling pine hills, or pine-barrens 'proper, with a width of 50 to 120 miles, the true home of the 'Longleaf pine, which occupies it almost by itself; (3) the belt 'of mixed growth of 20 to 60 miles in width, in which the Long-'leaf pine loses its predominance, the Shortleaf (*P. echinata*) the

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Specific Weight
.70
.60
.50
.40
49.6
43.4
37.1
31.0
24.8
Pounds per Cubic Foot.
Cuban Pine
Long leaf Pine (young trees)
Long leaf Pine (Old trees)
Loblolly Pine
Short leaf Pine
0
10
20
30
40
50
60
Feet from Stump.

No 1

'Loblolly, and the hardwoods associating and disputing territory 'with it; and (4) the Shortleaf pine belt, where the species pre-'dominates on the sandy soils the Longleaf being entirely absent, 'and the Loblolly only a feeble competitor, hardwoods being 'interspersed or occupying the better sites." Unfortunately, there are a large number of local names for these pines, no less than twenty-two, and those a selected lot, being given for the Longleaf. Of these the more distinctive are :—"Southern" "Georgia," "Florida," "Texas," and "Hard" or "Heart," all with various qualificatory terms. The Shortleaf is also called "Yellow," Virginia," "Carolina," "Slash," "Oldfield," "Bull," and "Spruce." The Loblolly is known as ; "Oldfield," "Rosemary," "Virginia," "Bull," "Sap," "Meadow," "Black," "Bastard," "Yellow," "Swamp," "Indian," "Spruce," &c. The Cuban is called "Slash," "Swamp," "Bastard," "Meadow," and "She Pitch."

The botanical characters of these trees are distinct, but the timbers are often indistinguishable even under the microscope. Typical specimens can be recognised by the expert, but the variations from type overlap considerably.

The timber of all these trees is, *for pines*,—heavy, hard, stiff, and strong. The weight of Kiln dried wood varies from 31 to 40 lbs. per cubic foot. With 15 per cent. moisture it required 1,000 lbs. per square inch to indent one-twentieth inch, and 7,000 lbs. per square inch to break in bending. The direct relation between specific weight and strength is well established. Cuban and Longleaf are the best, excelling Loblolly and Shortleaf by 20 per cent. in strength and weight. The last-mentioned is the least valuable. In any tree, the wood is lighter and weaker from the base upwards, especially is the decrease pronounced in the first 20 feet from the ground Fig 1. shows this fact graphically, for instance, in the case of young Longleaf trees, wood from the base weighs over 46 lbs. per cubic foot, while if taken from 60 feet above ground, it weighs less than 33 lbs. This great difference is due to the relative width of the summer-wood in each annual ring. The specific weight of summer-wood may be ·90 to 1·00, while that of the spring-wood is only about ·40. The best way for a practical man to judge the quality of a log, by inspection only, is therefore by forming as accurate an idea as possible of the proportion of summer-wood visible on the section. The variation in weight, and consequently in strength, from centre to periphery, depends on the rate of growth, the annual ring, in comparison with many old-world pines, having the agreeable characteristic that rapid growth translates itself mostly into autumn-wood, instead of producing an excess of spring-wood. In Longleaf and Cuban pine, the heaviest wood is formed between the ages of 15 and 120 years.

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Figure 2 shows graphically the specific weight of Longleaf timber at various ages and heights in the stem. To find the specific weight at any age and height there shown, it is only necessary to follow the required age-line from bottom of diagram up to the curve desired, and to rule a horizontal out to the scale of specific weight shown on margin opposite each curve. For the shorter-lived Loblolly and Shortleaf, the heaviest wood is formed between the ages of 15 and 80. Sapwood has not necessarily less strength than heartwood, unless it consists, as it does in old trees, of narrow rings, which contain, as already explained, a smaller proportion of summer-wood.

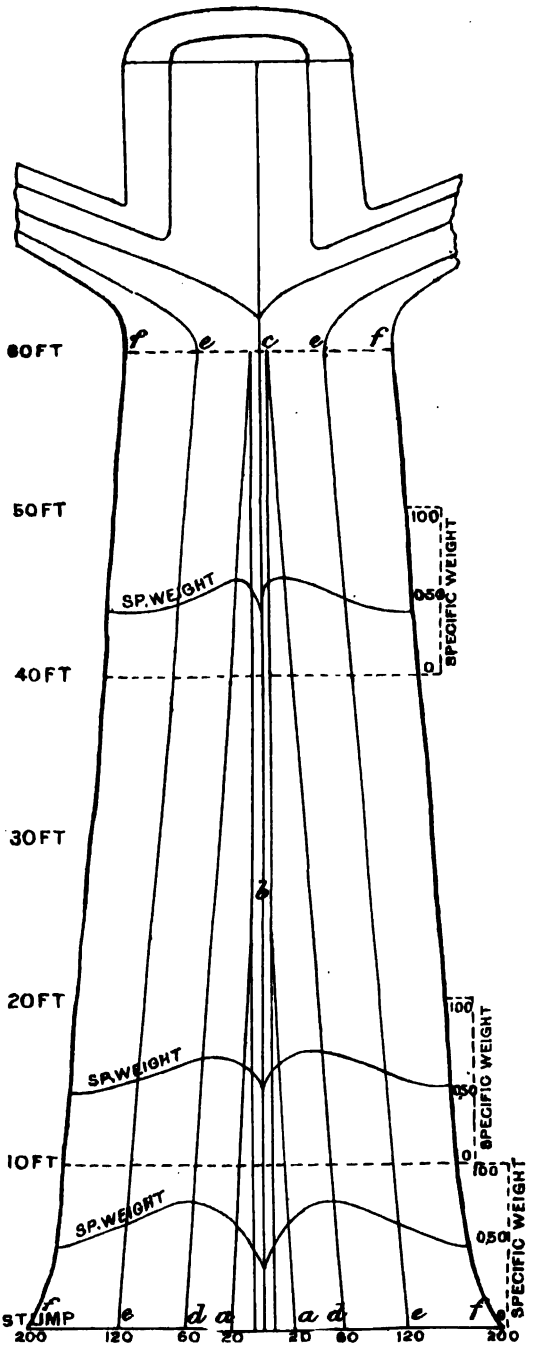
Moisture is an important consideration, since the difference in strength between green and seasoned wood may amount to 50 per cent. or even 100 per cent. in favour of the latter. Two-inch and smaller material will season down to 15 per cent. of moisture, but large pieces require several years to attain even to the condition of yard-seasoned. Tapping, "boxing," or bleeding for resin does not injure the timber, bled timber is quite as good as unbled. The estimated stock of available timber in the South is put doubtfully, at 200,000,000,000 feet, while the consumption is about 7,000,000,000, feet board measure. It will be seen that the outlook is none too cheerful unless effective steps are energetically taken in hand.

Forest Administration Reports of Bengal and Coorg for 1896-97.

The *Bengal* Report contains some points of special interest, notably the rise of the sleeper-trade from Singhbhum. Some difficulty was experienced in its compilation owing to the burning of the Conservator's office in Darjeeling on 2nd January, 1897, in a fire which started in the adjoining District cutcherry. On the subject of famine, fire and earthquake, we extract the following remarks of the Conservator.

"Untoward events, outside the pale of the Department, 'but intimately connected with its administration, were famine, 'fire and earthkqnake. Some scarcity and abnormally high 'prices ruled in all forest districts during the latter part 'of the year, but more especially in the Sundarbans, Chit-'tagong, and Palamau. In the Sundarbans, as a rule, short 'crops are productive of forest revenue, driving, as they do,

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'more men to the forest for a living, but in the latter part of 'the year under report, the distress is said to have become so 'acute as to have caused the mahajans, from fear of not 'recovering their advances, to refuse to make them as hitherto. 'In Chittagong the effect is different, and in this district 'scarcity invariably means short forest revenue. In Palamau 'there is little income, and the distress had but small 'influence over it. Some effects of the famine on the finances 'of the Department may be traced by a comparison of the 'surplus of the financial, with that of the forest year; in 'other words, of the period from the 1st April, 1896 to the '31st March, 1897, with that from the 1st July, 1896 to the '30th June, 1897. The difference is Rs. 31,203, but the full 'influence of the visitation is more noticeable in the smaller 'income from the chief revenue-producing tracts, viz., the 'Sundarbans and Chittagong Divisions, which amounted to 'Rs. 90,993. While suffering in the matter of revenue, the 'forests nevertheless afforded substantial relief in Chota 'Nagpur, in Orissa, and in the Sonthal Parganas, where both 'reserved and protected forests were thrown open to the 'free collection of edible fruits such as the mohwa, the 'kend, the bér, and the sál, thus supplying a large reserve 'of food to the neighbouring famine-stricken inhabitants.

"On the night of the 2nd January, 1897, a fire broke 'out in the Deputy Commissioner's portion of the Darjeeling 'cutcherry building, which, in consequence of the very 'inflammable nature of the roof, soon enveloped the whole 'premises in flames, including the offices of the Conservator 'and of the Darjeeling Division. While the fire was raging, 'there being no hope of saving the building, every endea- 'vour was made to save the records, furniture, books and 'instruments, which were thrown in a confused mass out 'of the windows with all the despatch possible, and much of 'the more valuable property was actually stolen. This 'unfortunate occurrence greatly added to the difficulties of 'administration during the latter half of the year and its 'effects are even to the present moment, most acutely felt. 'A large mass of valuable information collected by the Con- 'servator in connection with minor products, &c., has not yet 'come to light, and it is feared, is irretrievably lost."

"The earthquake of the afternoon of the 12th June, 1897, 'is now notorious; fortunately its effects were not very 'disastrous to the buildings of the Department, the chief 'damage occurring to a few rest-houses in the Darjeeling 'Division and notably to the head-quarters bungalow at 'Buxa, which was almost ruined. The destruction caused 'has not yet been accurately estimated, but it is thought 'that it will not exceed Rs. 5,000."

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The area of forest in Bengal at the close of the year was :—

Reserved ...	... 5,876	sq. miles.
Protected ...	. 3,378	,,
Unclassed ...	... 4,034	,,
	... 13,288	,,

being 8·5 per cent. of the area of the provinces.

Forest Settlements have very properly been re-done, for those forests where the original ones were not satisfactory. It is a good thing to be able to record that "no rights of any description have 'been admitted." We only hope the admission of privileges and concessions will also be as small as possible for they amount in the end to rights. It is quite easy to provide all that is wanted in the form of cheap rates without allowing concessions which only too often are general and indefinite. The preparation of Working Plans is making good progress. The number of cases taken into Court was 280, convictions resulting in 87 per cent. of them. The number of cases compounded was 1,158, and the amount taken averaged Rs. 3-10 per person. Fire-protection is still a great difficulty in Bengal, but as many of the forests are naturally protected, statistics are difficult to make out. However, 1,957 sq. miles were attempted, of which about 215 sq. miles were burnt. The following extract from the Conservator's Report will be found interesting.

"It may be observed that 23 fires, spreading over 17,613 'acres, were intentional, 11 comprising 13,116 acres being 'caused by the wilful acts of the surrounding population in 'the search for game; 23 fires, with an area of 5,462 acres 'were owing to carelessness or accident, the greater part—13 'fires burning 5,068 acres—being caused by villagers or 'travellers. Ten fires, burning 9,389 acres, crossed the 'exterior fire-lines, while five, extending over 1,368 acres, 'originated in preparing these lines. Of two fires, extending 'over 5,760 acres the causes were unknown. The chief 'fires, of which the capture of game was the main object, 'occurred in the Buxa Division, where the increasing number 'of gun licenses and tea-garden coolies and the proximity of 'Bhutan render protection most difficult. Of the fires due 'to the carelessness of villagers or travellers, no less than 'four, covering 4,965 acres, happened in Singhbhum, while 'the Buxa Division was the most unfortunate in accidents 'during the burning of fire-lines, all but 25 acres burnt 'through this cause having taken place in that Division. 'Singhbhum was also the most unlucky in the efficacy of its 'protective measures, the largest fire of the season extending 'over 7,680 acres having crossed over the exterior line from the 'adjoining tributary State of Keonjhar, where a villager set fire to

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'the stubble on his field without taking precautions to prevent the 'fire spreading. This occurrence was most regrettable as, though 'the offender was arrested, it was held that he could not be 'punished, the act which led to the disaster having been commit-'ted outside British territory. In Palamau a large area was 'burnt owing to the ignorance of the forest guard in counter-'firing."

In regard to 'Natural Reproduction,' the following extract summarizes what is the experience of recent Forest Officers in the case of our chief Indian trees such as Sál, Teak, Anjan, etc. The reason is usually obvious enough. It is only when the roots of the trees get down into permanently moist strata that the plants can develop sufficient strength for regular growth.

"The year was not a favorable one for the production of 'seed; oak singularly seeded profusely in Tista, but scarcely at 'all in Darjeeling, while Sál seed was reported as plentiful only 'in Angul, though, in Jalpaiguri, the supply was fair. Taking 'the province as a whole, reproduction, both from seed and by 'coppice, is said to be making satisfactory progress. The chief 'hindrances in the way of complete success are the recurring fires 'in the plains and lower hills, and the exuberance of dense under-'growth and creepers in the higher as well as the lower hills. 'Cold, too, in the low-lying lands is an important factor and in 'some instances, makes reproduction of any kind almost impos-'sible. Immunity from these obstacles would, wherever Sál 'exists, secure a perfect natural growth. Millions of young seed-'lings germinate in favourable years in all the Sál forests, but 'how many of these maintain themselves it is difficult to say. A 'large proportion, as personally observed by the Conservator, die 'down to the roots in February and March without any apparent 'cause and spring up again next rains; thus true seedlings are 'scarce and the greater part of the abundance of young plants 'to be seen in many parts is, on careful examination, found to be 'coppice shoots. The reason for this withering away is at pre-'sent wrapped in doubt—it may be cold—but it is hoped the 'matter will receive attention from Divisional officers and that a 'satisfactory conclusion will be come to. In Palamau, where this 'condition was most noticeable, orders have been issued to set 'aside small areas for careful observation and examination."

We are glad to see that the work of planting up the Paglajhora in the Kurseong Division is reported successful. The work has, it seems, been done with the help of '*Totnye*' cuttings (*Polygonum Molle*), aided by seedlings of toon, 'lali' and 'kowla.' The two latter are probably laurels, species of *Machilus*. In the Dhobijhora plantation the Cypress trees have reached 47 in. in girth, the Cryptomeria 41 in. How the late Sir George Campbell would have been interested to hear this! The heights are not given. Since the year ended, we regret much to have heard of the nearly complete destruction of the beautiful teak plantation

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of Sitapahar, in Chittagong, by a cyclone. The following schedule gives the outturn of the year.

Agency.	Timber C. ft.	Fuel C. ft.	Bamboos No.
Government	571,960	212,225	12,075
Purchasers	4,577,507	14,247,501	13,460,839
Free grantees	12,718	21,074	6,000
Right-holders	234,517	15,796,891	1,681,505
	5,396,702	30,277,691	18,160,814

with Rs. 2,52,421, value of minor produce.

The financial results of the forest year were :—

			Rs.
Revenue	...	..	11,45,982
Expenditure	...	...	6,96,378
Surplus	...	...	6,49,604

The Conservator says "it is indeed gratifying to be able to 'again record, for the third year in succession, that they are the 'best on record." The good results are due to the sale of about 1,80,000 sleepers from the Singhbhum forests about which unfortunately the Report tells us very little. We should have liked to know more about the cost of extraction and the rate of sale.

The chapter on administration shows a terrible lot of changes, and an average of three officers to a Division for the year. Privilege leave will of course, account for many changes, still there do seem to be too many.

From the Reviews by the Bengal Government (sympathetic enough), and the Government of India, there is not much to quote, but we are glad to see that both of them speak in high terms of the administration by the Conservator, Mr. Wild.

In the *Coorg* Report, there is not much of special interest. It has has been very much reviewed, like the Madras and Berar ones. The area of the forests is 888 sq.. miles, for about 200 of which Working Plans are either in force or being compiled.

Fire protection was very successful, and the following extract from Mr. Lowrie's Report describes it :—

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"The year has been favourable in the protection of forests 'from fire and the range officers deserve credit for their arrange-'ments in patrolling the forests during the fire season. For, 'though a little rain fell at the end of February, 35 cents in 'the Murkal and Nagerhole forests in the South, and 10 cents at 'Dubare in the centre of the reserved area, the grass was quite 'ready to burn two or three days after these small showers. I have 'no doubt also that the punishment of subordinates last year 'had a good effect, and also the temporary closing of forest badly 'burnt, to all shooting, during the shooting season allowed in 'Coorg, as no doubt some of the bad fires are due to the setting 'alight of the forests to clear the dense grass and undergrowth 'so as to be able to shoot with ease when the new grass is 'coming up. The fee for shooting licenses is small, only Rs. 5, 'and this enables even an ordinary *kuramber* to apply for a 'license which I have had them do. Of course what they shoot 'is sold. Game is very scarce in Coorg and what little game 'there is, is chiefly found in our reserved forests; so that 'the Coorgs who are all allowed to carry guns and love their '*shikar*, can well do a little poach without taking out a license, 'either with or without the connivance of my establishment 'without any trouble when the grass has been clean burnt and 'forest grass is springing up."

There is not much said about *natural reproduction* except to draw attention to the absence of seedlings under the bamboo (*Bambusa arundinacea*) whose shade is so dense that nothing can grow. The Deputy Conservator seems rather exercised by the growth of lichens *on Sandal* trees in the plantations. He says:

"After carefully inspecting the older plantations, one and all 'show a great tendency, especially when the plants are all in a 'clump growing close together, for the plants to be attacked by 'lichens of which I have noticed six different sorts. This takes 'place when the plants are about 8 to 10 feet high and 3 to 6 'inches in diameter The results have been most disastrous over 'large areas where the stems get covered up, the leading shoot 'and branches attacked, and the plants soon die. The successful 'method of growing Sandal in our plantations has by no means 'been solved and the matter requires most careful treatment."

"The Kargode plantation shows the greatest amount of plants 'attacked by lichen especially where the plants are exposed to 'direct sunlight without any cover near. It might also be, that 'the rank grass and weeds, two to three feet high in some of 'these older plantations, prevents a free circulation of air at 'the roots and weakens the plants and makes them more liable 'to the attacks of lichens. The matter is receiving attention. 'In a small area in Kargode careful thinnings are being done 'and limited grazing allowed to keep down the grass and weeds."

For our part, we are very much inclined to doubt that lichens attack the trees and cause death. Lichens on tree trunks usually

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indicate an especially damp climate and an air saturated with moisture. Now in the regular Sandal forests, the reverse is the case: for the air is usually dry, ground vegetation little, and the climate only damp for short periods. So we are inclined to think that, like that curiously out-of-place plantation near Northernhay on the northern slope of the Nilgiris, said to have been formed to allow a former Forest Officer to inspect his private Coffee estates while on duty, the areas for these plantations may have been badly selected. We should like to know whether Sandal plantations in damp areas give really good scented wood, and perhaps Mr. Pigot or someone can tell us. The following account of the timber working of the Coorg Forests is rather long but seems to deserve reprinting in our pages.

"No doubt in the year 1893—94, the demand for timber 'was good and the depôt being abolished, the purchasers came 'to the forest. They also saw that they could make a good 'thing out of it as the system was a new one and the checks 'imposed not being strict, they got the best timber in the 'market at a very moderate rate. Government on the other 'hand sold its best timber and has all the slightly-damaged 'logs lying on its hands in the forest. I will now explain the 'system of 1893—94. On a purchaser applying for timber, 'he paid in an advance amount according to the rates for the 'quantity of timber he required. The man then went to the 'Ranger to point out the logs to him, which was done, and of 'these logs the man selected some and rejected others Now 'the man was only supposed to reject 8 per cent. of the logs 'shown him, but this was never done and there was no check. 'The man selected the best of the year's coupe. I may mention 'here that there were only four or five purchasers who took any 'quantity of timber. The man having indented for say 3,000 'cubic feet of teak and paid for the same, he then finds that there 'are only 1,500 cubic feet of the very best teak which he re-'moves from the year's coupe; he still has a balance of 1,500 'cubic feet, which must be removed before the time allowed—one 'year—is out from the time of his payment, he then very cutely 'applies for another say 1,000 cubic feet, and pays for the same 'in advance just before the carting season begins. He then does 'not go and make his selections in last year's coupes, for the '2,500 cubic feet due him, but in the current year's coupes, and 'then acts as he has done before. Now to put a stop to this and 'see that the Rangers do their work, I issued orders that when 'a timber merchant applies for logs the Ranger should go with 'him and draw out a list in duplicate for all logs shown the 'timber merchant for the full amount of indent. In the list will 'be entered the number and cubic feet of logs accepted, and the 'number and cubic feet of logs rejected. Both these lists will 'be signed by the Range officer and purchaser. One list will

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'be sent to the Deputy Conservator, and the other given to the 'purchaser who will consider the logs as made over to him, and 'that the department will in no way hold itself responsible for 'the logs made over. This of course has also the advantage of 'making the payment made on the indent complete on the year's 'transaction. This procedure has naturally not been in favour 'with purchasers and has consequently somewhat decreased 'the demand for timber during the last two years. There 'is no doubt that Government was a loser without 'the check now imposed being enforced. Year after year 'the coupe fellings have accumulated, and if a bad fire occurs 'a number of logs are sure to be burnt. On the other 'hand, the working of the timber from the forest by Gov- 'ernment agency is a difficulty, which, owing to the insuffi- 'ciency of transport, cannot be undertaken on any large scale. 'The transport consists of bullock carts, and this cannot be de- 'pended on owing to the thousands employed by the coffee estates 'just during the time when our carting of timber is in hand. 'Of course the finer carts much prefer to go on to coffee work, 'which is easier and pays them better. Only about 5% of the 'few carts which come into the forest can carry logs over 40 cubic 'feet, so that most of the fine large logs are left in the forest. 'The difficulty of transport is also one that the purchasers who 'come to our forests for timber justly complain of. Another 'great obstacle in the way of transport is the prevalence of cholera 'at Hunsur and round Hunsur every second year or so. As 'soon as cholera breaks out, the cartmen refuse to work and 'bolt, and as they can always get work in the coffee districts, 'promptly go there. I do not, however, for the present, at 'least, advocate a return to the depôt system, until a further 'trial of a couple of years of the system now in force is given. 'I suggest two years, because there is no doubt that the demand 'from the local market has been very low during the past 'two years, and especially during the year under report. A steady 'demand has sprung up from the Ordnance Department, Madras, 'for teak and blackwood. This year their indent has reached '25,000 cubic feet, at Rs. 2 per cubic foot, delivered by Government 'agency at the Paschimavahini railway station. Should this demand 'continue and the prospects of the local market brighten, I 'would most certainly suggest the re-starting of the Hunsur depôt, 'and also the consideration of a tramway over 18 miles from 'Murkal in the Hatgat forest, to Hunsur.

The financial results of the year were :—

		Rs.
Receipts		84,014
Charges		77,203
	Surplus ...	6,811

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We are glad to see that Mr. Lowrie's work met with commendation. He has, since the year referred to, returned to the the Central Provinces and been succeeded by Mr. Pigot. We wonder why Coorg is not transferred altogether to the Madras Presidency as a District.

Forest Administration Report of the Madras Presidency, 1896-97.

The report itself has not come to hand,* but we have received a copy of the Review by the Madras Government, on which a few remarks will suffice. The area of forest at the close of the year was :—

	Square miles.
Reserved Forest ...	... 13,138
,, Land ...	.. 5,769
Total	... 18,907

which is rather less than it was in the previous years. The decrease is attributed to the "policy enunciated by the Government of India in October 1894."

Settlement work is still going on in Madras ; it is slow, but it is well-done and the delay will probably be well repaid in the end, and officers be free to set to work energetically on Working Plans before temporary methods of management have quite cleared out all the best of the material.

The area attempted to be protected from fire was only about one-fourth of the area under the Department, *viz.*, 5363 sq. m. Of this, 99 per cent. was successful at a cost of 2-2 pies per acre.

The outturn of the forests for the year was :—

		c. ft.
Timber and Sandalwood	... ...	2,642,276
Fuel	... ...	12,182,192
Bamboos	... ... No.	30,846,684
Minor Produce	... ... Rs.	942,739

The profit to the Department was :—

		Departmental. As. P.	Private As. P.
Timber	per c. ft.	3 2	1 6
Fuel	,,	0 2	0 4
Bamboos	each	0 3	0 1
Sandalwood	per c. ft.	Rs. 5 11 4.	

* Since received.

Hon. Ed.

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The Financial Results for the forest year were :—

Receipts	...	21,88,917
Charges	...	15,87,877
Surplus		6,01,049

more than half of which was in the Central Circle.

The Review concludes with the following paragraph—

"*Conclusion.*—The continuance of Settlement work has 'impeded the development of the forests to some extent by 'diverting to that work the time and attention of a large 'portion of the forest staff and delaying the preparation of 'proper working plans. Nevertheless, the Government con- 'siders that much has been done towards the improvement of 'forest growth. The amounts of timber, fuel and grass re- 'moved—a great portion, especially in the affected districts, 'on free grants,—prove that the department has satisfactorily 'met the wants of the people."

The Orchids of Sikkim.

This magnificent work in two Volumes has recently been issued and is worth some notice, for forest officers often come across rare and interesting orchids, and either grow them or send them to their friends and like to be able to give their names. The following extract from the Annual Report of the Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta, for 1897-98 describes the book.

"The great work of the year has been the completion of 'an account of the *Orchids of Sikkim* by Sir George King 'and Mr. R. Pantling. Mr. Pantling had for many years 'devoted his leisure to making drawings from the living plants 'of those orchids to be met with in and near the Cinchona 'Plantations, and, being strongly recommended thereto by Sir 'George King, ultimately systematized his efforts into a pro- 'ject for providing a life-sized figure of the plant, accompani- 'ed by analyses of the parts of the flower on an enlarged 'scale, of every orchid found within the limits of Sikkim from 'the Terai to the snows, in order to illustrate a complete 'account of the orchid-flora of Sikkim. Mr. Pantling having 'provided the drawings, these were lithographed, under Sir 'George King's supervision, in Calcutta, by natives of Bengal, 'trained at the Government School of Art. A certain number 'of these lithographs, printed more lightly than the rest, have 'been partly coloured, under the careful supervision of Mr. Pantling, by the sons of Nepalese coolies on the Cinchona

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'Plantation. The work constitutes one of the most magnifi-'cent and valuable contributions to systematic and regional 'botany that has recently appeared."

The work is a fitting culmination to the long series of publications of great botanical interest which have been issued by Sir George King since he became Director of the Gardens in 1870. It is, perhaps, not generally known now that Sir George King went to the Gardens from the Forest Department, for when he was appointed, his permanent post was that of Deputy Conservator of Forests of the Dehra Dún Division. He has now retired for good, and we may hope he will now recover at home the health he has lost during the hard work of the last two or three years.

V—SHIKAR AND TRAVEL.

A Cave Exploration.

In the Jaunsar Division, about a dozen miles beyond Chakrata, is a hill some 9,000 ft. high called Moila, queen of the surrounding country, and this queen is very hollow inside, as though she had nothing to eat, but it is evident she drinks too much, for the drainage of some acres of her crown all goes down what would be her gullet, if it stood alone in the business, but there are several competitors. One or two of these are more or less marked by dirt and débris. One is a nearly vertical hole which we had not time to plumb, but intend examining at a future time, as it certainly goes down a long way. The cave we examined is a vertically semicircular opening in a hollow at the foot of a small cliff or ridge. The rock is Deoban limestone, or a similar rock containing included fragments which is found in the Mundali series. As the whole drainage of perhaps 10 acres goes down this hole, and the rainfall is heavy, it is evident that the effect of water-action for centuries must have been considerable. The entrance is low and necessitates a stooping attitude, the passage enters straight for some yards and then turns to the left, or West, leaving a blind branch on the right. Next there is the choice between two courses, an upper and a lower. The lower means simply crawling under a rock, with the possible loss of waistcoat buttons and of portions of cuticle from the scalp and shoulders. The upper means climbing over a ridge and results in the discovery of a high vertical chamber, up which it is

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possible, by the aid of suckers on one's feet and hands, to climb to some height There is no object in doing this, for we took all the stalactites and the stalagmites that were worth having, and a lot that were not. Both these courses unite immediately, and the passage now develops into a large vertical fissure with a floor about 4 feet wide. There is here another blind branch ascending to the right and it is rather curious. The branch is at first wide and high, but suddenly the wall comes down to the ground in front, leaving a slit about 10 inches or a foot high. There is a little window, but no glass in it, and visitors are allowed to put their heads through, but no more. We laid ourselves out very flat and passed beneath with a certain amount of grunting. Once inside, we imagined ourselves in one of the towers of a mediæval castle, for we were in a circular or polygonal space, with vertical walls extending to a considerable height, and the resemblance was completed by a few signs of bats. We might have lived here a month without paying any rent, which was a great temptation to good Oirishmen like ourselves, but our friends were waiting, an operation they eventually became quite expert at. On this occasion our party consisted of Capt. and Mrs. B., my friend B. B. Osmaston, I. F. S., and self. We two latter had visited the cave twice before, and had this time come prepared with beams, ropes, axes, picks, candles, sealing wax, paper trail, dynamite, and all things necessary for Alpine excursions. My friend, B. B. O., is a big man and a bad, I mean bold, whereas I am of small physique, and would rather fight a man of gigantic intellect and retiring disposition like myself, than a nasty, coarse bear, or a hasty and inconsiderate tiger. Consequently it fell to my friend B. B. O., to lead the van, and he nearly fell through the floor of it twice, as will be seen presently. I was rather disappointed there were no bears inside, because there was really no room to pass ; and I felt spoiling for a good fight, which I could have directed admirably from the top of some high stalagmite, or if necessary from the pendent end of a large stalactite. My friend, B. B. O., rather wondered at my continual admiration of stalactites which he considered of a dirty mud colour, and somewhat inaccessible and unwieldy to carry away. I did not trouble to argue. If he could not see their great points himself, who was I to explain their advantages. Well, as already explained, my friend B. B.O. led and I came next. Suddenly, his candle turned pale and he exclained, "by Jove, I put my foot over nothing!" "Did you?" said I, running into him with a bump. I always like to verify people's statements. He had, however, got his elbows firm into the rocks, and a sharp snag supporting his ribs, so we renewed the exploration cautiously. The floor of the cavern had certainly disappeared, so he stayed where he was. There was, however, a ledge above the chasm, and it was

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practicable, if somewhat slanting and slippery. We tied a lantern to a rope and I let it down, finding the depth 20 feet and a shallow pool at the bottom. Further illumination showed that the far end of the chasm was practicable, so we fixed a post across, tied a rope to it, and my friend B. B. O., still in the van, went down it like a monkey. He reported that the passage continued, and started gaily along it while I was screwing up my nerves to descend too. At about the second step he again put his foot on nothing, and as I was not close behind, he was able to come back to report it. I got down, and as before, got a little along the chasm till I was sure of getting a clear fall for at least two seconds if I wanted it, and then with my friend's assistance, let down the lantern. Down, down, into the darkness, till I felt very small indeed. Who was I, to straddle a chasm like that? However, everything has an end. The rope had two, and I had hold of the second and last, so we fetched down our last hope, tied it on, and had about 6 feet to spare when the lantern reached bottom. Depth, 80 feet. These ropes would not bear my friend B.B.O., and I was determined they should not bear me, so there was nothing for it but to haul up the lantern, and ourselves, and clear out, which we did. The only signs of life we found were a spider's web, some planorbis shells, and a few bat's droppings. We hope next year to take an 80-feet rope ladder and see why the big chamber leaks, as it certainly does, for no water was visible at the bottom. The natives say that no man has ever been inside, but two dead sheep, taking fortune at the flood, once ventured in, and their horns, or sausages, or something, came out in the Bhingar nala; but that locality is a thousand or two feet lower down, and I hope it is not true, or our 80-feet ladder will not be much good. But it is exceeding likely. We thought ourselves pretty deep, but we could not get to the bottom of that.

F. GLEADOW

VI.—EXTRACTS NOTES AND QUERIES.

A big Teak Log.

We have recently been favoured with a copy of the Inspection Note on the forests of the Ruby Mines by the officiating Conservator, E. Circle, Upper Burma, Mr. J. Nisbet. From it, we extract the following :—

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"Messrs Darwood and Company have now in one of the 'floating streams the largest teak log I have heard of. It is an 'old log but thoroughly sound, and measures 82 ½ feet by 10 feet 'mean girth=8 ½ tons. The butt girth is between 12 and 13 feet, 'and the top girth between 7 and 8 feet. The Local Government 'have been informally addressed relative to securing this fine 'specimen of a Burmese teak log for the Imperial Institute in 'London.'"

A log of 516 c. feet will be somewhat difficult to transport.

Indian Podophyllum.

A complete examination is now being conducted in the laboratories of the Scientific and Technical Department, of the constituents of the Indian plant *Podophyllum Emodi*, with the object of ascertaining how far the constituents resemble those of the well-known American drug *Podophyllum peltatum*, from which the resin called "podophyllin" is obtained and largely employed as a medicine in this and other countries. The inquiry is not yet completed, but it may be useful in this stage to give some account of certain of the results obtained, which seem to point to the conclusion that Indian podophyllum is an important drug, whose constituents are the same as those of the American plant. It produces similar medicinal effects to those of *Podophyllum peltatum*, whilst the Indian plant appears to furnish a larger percentage of the valuable resin. The investigation was commenced in the Research Laboratory of the Pharmaceutical Society, and has since been carried out in the Laboratories of the Imperial Institute.

The resin "podophyllin" was first prepared from the Indian root (rhizome) by the process of the British Pharmacopœia, which consist in exhausting the drug by percolation with alcohol, concentrating the percolate, and precipitating the resin by the addition of water. The resin so obtained is washed with water and dried by exposure to the air. The "podophyllin" is much lighter in colour than that made from *Podophyllum peltatum*; this was found to be due to the large quantity of the colourless crystalline substance "podophyllotoxin," which it contains (30 per cent.), while the commercial American resin contains an average of about 20 per cent.

The medicinal action of the resin obtained from the Indian plant has been examined by Dr. H. W. G. Mackenzie, of St. Thomas's Hospital, and its effect compared with that of the American resin.

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Dr. Mackenzie finds that the two resins are identical in their medicinal effects, and that, therefore, there is no reason why the resin obtained from the Indian root should not be substituted for the American resin.

This is an important result, since the Indian root contains from two to three times as much of the valuable resin as the American root, and is, therefore, the more satisfactory source of the resin.

The following is a tabular statement embodying the results of estimations of the resin in the American plant, and in several specimens of Indian drug collected in various localities :—

(*a*) *Podophyllum emodi* :—

Name of District in India yielding the Root.			Percentage of Resin found.
Kulu	...	...	9·55
Bashahr	...	...	9·003
Chamba*	..	...	11·12
,, †	...	...	12·03
Hazara	...	...	9·06

(*b*) *Podophyllum peltatum*.—Four commercial specimens of roots gave—

(1.) 4·17 per cent.
(2.) 5·2 per cent.
(3.) 5·4 per cent.
(4.) 5·2 per cent.

A complete account will shortly be given of the chemistry of the two plants, and of the nature of the substance to which the resin (podophyllin) owes its medicinal power.

WYNDHAM R. DUNSTAN,
Director, Scientific Department,
28th November, 1896. Imperial Institute.

Imperial Institute Report, 1896-97.

A Natural Non-inflammable Wood.

The rapid growth in popular estimation of Australian timbers, during the past quarter of a century, is remarkable when contrasted with the opinion held of them, even in their native country, in earlier times. The early settlers, accustomed

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as they had been to the use of pine and other easily-worked woods, regarded the gum tree as the most worthless of all timber. It was hard to split, and would not even make good firing. This last assertion, however, was true only of some species. The notice of Australian woods in England was no doubt due to the great Exhibition of 1851. It was shortly after the closing of this Exhibition that the Admiralty authorities instituted inquiries for the purpose of determining the most suitable wood for the construction of warships, and the verdict was given in favour of the West Australian jarrah. It was at about this time, however, that it was discovered that ships could be constructed of iron. But for this discovery, probably the wooden walls of old England might now be constructed of Australian woods. As a fact, wood for the construction of ships gave place to iron, and the report was almost forgotten. Later, however, jarrah was used for paving, and it is perhaps in consequence of this report that jarrah has always been considered as the most valuable of all the eucalypts. But the jarrah (*Eucalyptus marginata*) is only one in a large division of the Eucalyptus family. Scientific observers recognise about 170 different species of eucalypts in Australia and the islands immediately adjacent, but the practical bushman divides the family into three great classes which he calls gums, stringy-barks, and iron-barks. There is one characteristic of the stringy-barks which does not, as yet, appear to have received the attention it deserves. In all the official reports issued in the various colonies, it is said that stringy-bark does not make good firewood. As a matter of fact, this wood will not burn as other wood does; and in some parts of South Australia and New South Wales, where forests of stringy-bark exist, the settlers have some difficulty in finding wood to cook with. The bark, when stripped off and dried, will burn, as will the leaves, but the timber cannot be burned without being mixed with some more inflammable wood. Hitherto the reputation of this class of timber as firewood rests almost entirely on popular opinion, as no official tests have, as yet, been made with a view to testing how far the wood of the jarrah, the *Eucalyptus obliqua*, the *E. piperita*, *E. macrorrhyncha*, and other stringy-barks will resist fire. Some of the white gums and the "half barks," *i.e.*, trees which have fibrous bark on the stems and smooth bark on the limbs—are also very difficult to burn. Logs or sticks of these woods when placed on a fierce fire char through very slowly, and the charring goes on only as long as a fire, fed with inflammable wood, is kept up against them. When this firing is removed, the stringy-bark logs or sticks become black and cold at once. No other known wood exhibits this power to resist fire to the degree that the stringy-bark does, and therefore a suggestion in the *Timber Trades Journal* that official tests should be

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made with a view to a scientific statement, as to the extent to which this timber is capable of resisting fire without artificial treatment, may be of great value. The discovery of a timber which may be used for internal fittings without danger by fire has engaged the attention of architects and others for some time past, and numerous methods of treating woods for the purpose of rendering them non-inflammable have been suggested. Many of these experiments have been made with that most inflammable of all timbers—pine. Whether they would have been more successful had they been made on a timber like stringy-bark, which has a natural power of resistance to fire, cannot be said positively, but its probability cannot be doubted. Stringy-bark is reported to be very sensitive to moisture. Hence, although it is easily worked, can be smoothly planed and takes a good polish, it is liable to warp, when exposed to damp. The warping takes the form of a swelling of the fibres so as to produce small ridges on the surface. How far this would be detrimental to its use for internal fittings must be decided by experts, but there can be little doubt in the mind of any person fully acquainted with the characteristics of this wood, that its use as joists, or for staircases, would enormously reduce the losses by fire in cities. Staircases and lift-wells form natural chimneys in case of fire, and if these were lined with timber as difficult to burn as stringy-bark is known to be, by practical bushmen in its natural state, fires, which now burn out a whole building, might perhaps be confined to a single floor or room, or prevented altogether.
—*Timber Trades Journal.*

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—The deliveries for the first half of 1898, have amounted to 10,767 loads, as compared with 9,357 loads in the first half of 1897. For June this year there have been 1,667 loads, which compares with a delivery of 956 loads in June 1897. The stock has reduced a little in the month, and prices have been quite firm with an improving tendency. Floating stocks are sold so far ahead that there is no variation of prices to be noted in them.

ROSEWOOD.—East India.—Sells readily, and really good logs bring full prices, but imports must be kept within moderate limits.

SATINWOOD.—East India—Finely-figured logs are in good demand, but for plain wood there is not much inquiry.

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EBONY.—East India—Only sound, sizeable logs, of good colour, should be shipped.

Price Current.

Indian Teak,	per	load ...	... £10 to £15
Rosewood	„	ton ...	... £ 9 to £10
Satinwood	„	foot (supl).	... 5 *d.* to 12 *d.*
Ebony	„	ton ...	... £6 to £8

Denny, Mott, & Dickson's Wood Market Report.

LONDON, 1ST JUNE, 1898.

TEAK.—1,210 loads of logs and planks were landed in the London Docks during last month, against 4,108 loads for the corresponding month of last year. The deliveries into consumption were 1,575 loads against 990 loads in June, 1897. The Dock Stocks now stand as follows :—

10,276	**Loads of**	**Logs, as against**	**8,222**	**Loads at the same date last year**			
3,226	„	Planks	„	2,042	„	„	„
20	„	Blocks	„	24	„	„	„
Total	**13,552**	**Loads**		**10,288**	**Loads**	„	„

The following are the comparisons between the past half-year and the corresponding one in 1897 :—

Landings in London Docks from 1st January to 30th June, 1898,—10,547 loads as against 7,850 loads for the same period in 1897.

Deliveries from London Docks from 1st January to 30th June, 1898,—10,502 loads as against 9,225 loads for the same period in 1897.

A delivery from London of 10,502 loads for the half-year is very satisfactory, seeing that H. M's. Admiralty's requirements have not been chiefly supplied from London as was the case last year, and had not the outbreak of the American-Spanish war checked orders for Rolling Stock, the demand for the half-year would have been still brisker, as the London market depends more upon the Railway Carriage than the Shipbuilding demand, which is chiefly supplied from stocks on the Clyde, Tyne and Wear.

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The large Continental demand has been chiefly supplied floating cargoes as the heavy duties effectually debar Lo stocks from any share of the French business.

Prices have consistently hardened since the commence of the year, owing to ever-increasing cost of first-class Tea the shipping Ports, and the almost total cessation of shipm from Bangkok owing to scarcity of timber.

The proportion of inferior wood in stock has been la decreased by the better quality of this year's importat Rangoon has recovered its high standard for quality, and B kok fairly well maintained its good reputation of last Moulmein, however, has continued to give much trouble bo respect to quality and conversion, and seeing that the importations of this wood still largely remain on hand, it is to conceive why this timber is shipped to Europe if an imp ment in the standard of quality cannot be effected ; as the cost in Moulmein leaves no chance of a profit on this side so the higher quality, and therefore more saleable, Rangoon is obtainable.

MARKET RATES OF PRODUCE.

July 1898.

Cardamoms	per	lb.	3s. 2d.	to	3s.
Croton Seeds	„	cwt.	87s. 6d.	to	90s
Cutch	„	„	9s. 3d.	to	32s
Gum Arabic, Madras	„	„	27s. 6d.	to	35s
„ Kino	„	„	12s. 6d.	to	15s.
India rubber, Assam	„	lb.	2s. 7d.	to	3s.
„ Burma	„	„	2s. 3d.	to	3s.
Myrabolams, Madras	„	cwt.	4s. 9d.	to	5s.
„ Bombay	„	„	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
„ Jubbulpore	„	„	4s.	to	7s.
„ Calcutta	„	„	3s. 6d.	to	5s.
Nux Vomica	„	„	7s.	to	7s.
Oil, Lemon Grass	„	lb.	4½ d.	to	5*d.*
Sandalwood, Logs	„	ton	£30	to	£5
„ Chips	„	„	£4	to	£5
Sapanwood	„	„	£4	to	£5
Seed lac	„	cwt.	60s.	to	70s
Tamarinds	„	„	4s.	to	6s.

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THE

INDIAN FORESTER

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN

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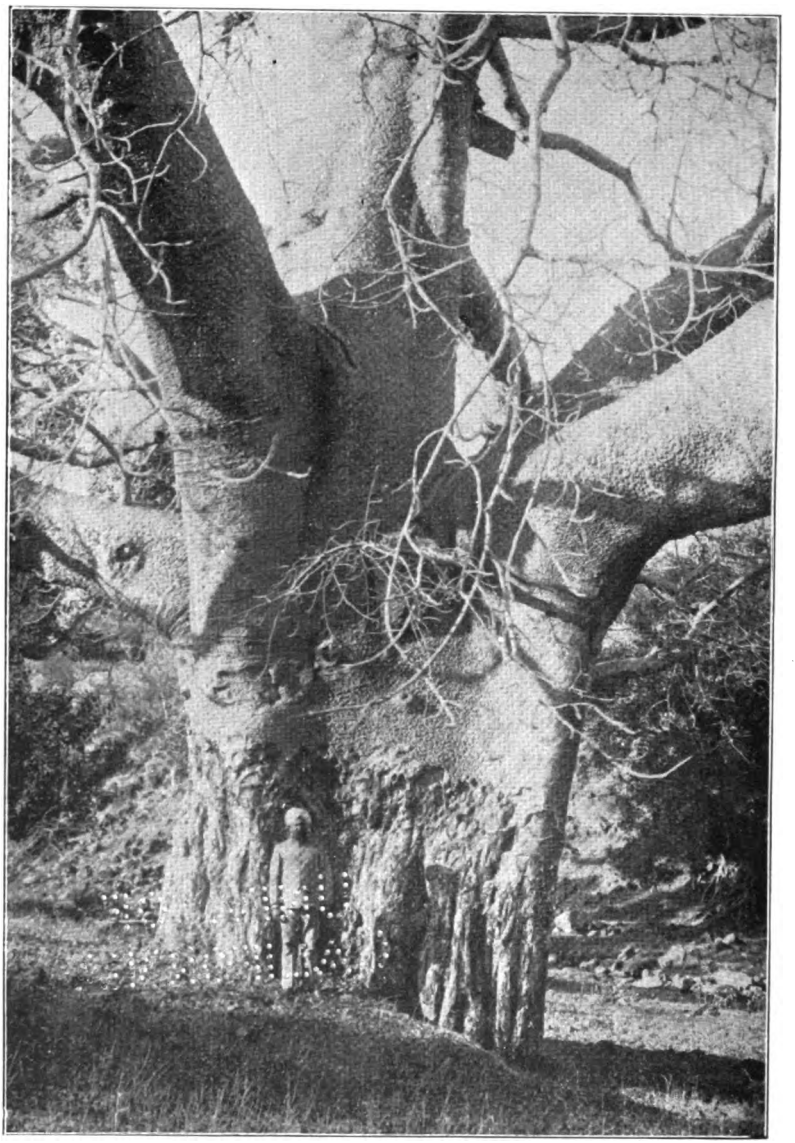
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Offers are invited for the following copies of the "Indian Forester." Vols. I to VIII and X to XIII bound in cloth, green and gold, and Vols. XIV and XV unbound.

ALFRED CLARK,

Batticoloa,
Ceylon.

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ADANSONIA DIGITATA.

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THE

INDIAN FORESTER.

Vol. XXIV.] September, 1898. [No. 9.

The biggest tree in Berar.

The picture, which we present to our readers this month, is a photograph of a big Baobab tbe (*Adansonia digitata*) at Karwand in the Buldana District, Berar, which we recently received from the Conservator, Mr. C. Bagshawe. The tree, whose size can be gauged by the figure of Mr. Bhukan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, who is standing in front of it, is 42 feet in girth.

SILKWORMS.

Origin of the Silkworm.

The silk industry first appears to have been introduced into Southern Europe towards the beginning of the 14th century. Its place of origin, however, is China; and indeed; if history is to be believed, it would appear that as long as 4,520 years ago the Chinese Empress, Si-Ling-Chi, did much to encourage the development of the silkworm culture in that country As might well be expected, the Chinese were extremely jealous of this, their new industry, and in order to keep the trade in their own hands, strict laws were passed punishing with death any person discovered in an attempt to remove this precious insect from the country. This expedient was so far successful that the secret was kept in China for over 20 centuries. In the year 140 B. C., however, a Princess of the House of Han, having been betrothed to the King of Khotan in Central Asia, was able to take away with her to her new home, concealed in her hair, the seeds both of the silkworm and of the mulberry. Thus the silkworm culture was first started in Central Asia. Thence it rapidly spread; and, as already stated, it reached Italy and France in the 14th century. Everything appears to have been done at that time to encourage the

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new industry. So much so that in the ancient edicts of Florence, orders are to be found prescribing the compulsory planting of mulberry trees.

These few remarks must suffice as regards the origin of the industry in Europe. Further, it is not proposed in these articles to give any minute description of the different species and varieties of silkworms, or to enter into careful details regarding their anatomical structure. But a few brief notes regarding the life-history of the insect, and of the different stages through which it passes, will be necessary in order to fully appreciate the different points to be attended to in the construction of the breeding-house, and in the rearing of the insects as practised in the South of Europe.

The silkworm belongs to the order of the Lepidoptera, to the family of the nocturnal Lepidoptera, to the tribe of the Bombicydæ and to the genus Sericaria (Lat, sericarius, silk worker). The older naturalists have termed it *Bombyx mori*, a name which has been more recently altered to *Sericaria mori*. The egg, the larva, the chrysalis, and the moth are the different stages in its life-history, which it will be necessary to consider.

The Egg.

To begin with the egg stage. It will be found that the egg or "*seed*," as it is called, varies in shape, colour and weight both at the time of its laying, and during the period of its incubation. Thus, when first laid, the colour of the egg is generally a lemon-yellow. But between the eighth and fifteenth day it alters considerably in colour, passing through various shades, until it assumes a greyish colour, dotted with black points. In this condition it remains all through the winter, and through part of the spring, and until the time comes for its being hatched, when it again passes through various shades of colour, finally becoming a semi-transparent greyish white—a sure sign that further developments are at hand.

Again, the weight, even of the same breeds, varies very considerably according to the year, and to the locality. Thus, from experiments carried out by Professor Nenci it was found that one grain or ·035 oz. in weight contained from 1,330 to 2,190 eggs. Again, the loss in weight of the egg, from the time of laying to the time of hatching, varies considerably; the loss being put down at 14 per cent. of its weight at the start.

It may be interesting to mention here that the egg both inspires and expires; because by measuring the respiratory activity of the eggs, it may be shown that the life of the egg can be divided into three stages. The first stage, a period of about three months, full of activity; the second stage, from the end of October to the middle of February, one of sleepiness or lethargy, and during this period respiration is at its lowest.

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Finally, the third stage, from the middle of February up to the time of its hatching, when vital activity again recommences. The following table from experiments carried out by Duchause, showing the quantity of oxygen consumed at different periods, will give an idea of the degree of respiratory activity at different periods, *viz.*:—

Age.	*Temperature.*	*Activity.*
1st day	... 21°C	... 13·8
2nd ,,	... 21 ,,	... 26·0
3rd ,,	... 20·5°C	... 19·0
4th ,,	... 21 ,,	... 8·9
6th ,,	... 21 ,,	... 7·0
13th ,,	... 21 ,,	... 4·7
1st month	.. 21 ,,	... 3·2
2nd ,,	... 20 ,,	... 2·3
3rd ,,	... 11 ,,	... 1·0
7th ,,	... 7 ,,	... 1·4
9th ,,	... 8 ,,	... 2·9
Eve of hatching	... 28 ,,	... 48·0

Such is the history of the fertilized egg. But in the case of those eggs that have not received the necessary vivifying impulse, the egg changes its colour in an abnormal manner; the sides become compressed, until they almost touch; the inside dries up; and finally the whole decomposes.

The Larva.

The egg stage of the Bombyx has now come to an end, the larva is ready to make its appearance into the world; and to enter into the second stage of its life-history. Accordingly the imprisoned larva proceeds to swallow the last remnants of the centre, including the few small membranes which bound it; and, aided by a special saliva, it eats through the micropyle of the shell and thus comes forth into the light of day. Such is the birth of the worm. But this birth does not take place at any hour of the day. It is found that the worms generally make their appearance in the early morning between the 6th and 9th hour. Then, again, if a given number of eggs are being treated, it will be found that the period elapsing between the appearance of the first and last worm will vary from three to six days. Further, a percentage of from 15 to 20 of the eggs will be found to be barren.

At its first appearance, the little insect is but a microscopical object. It only measures some two millimeters in length, and over 2,000 of them are required to make up a gramme in weight. It does not, however, lose any time to increase its bulk. And, almost as soon as it is born, as soon as its mouth organs are

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hardened, the Bombyx at once begins to nibble at the leaves of the mulberry, its favourite food. From this time forward its whole life may be described as one merely of feeding and digesting. It feeds day and night; and, in fact, at all hours. And, indeed, the caterpillar has no time to lose, for in a period of about one month it has to increase 14,000 times in bulk. Thus the Bombyx may be said to visibly increase hour by hour, and at the same time it becomes of a lighter colour, due chiefly to the hairs occupying a larger superficial area.

At the end of a few days, however, a marked change appears. All this activity appears to come to an end, the caterpillar almost stops feeding, and as a result shrinks to a certain extent, and likewise becomes of a still lighter colour. Not only this, but it begins to roam about in an aimless manner, until at length it settles down on some suitable leaf or twig. To this it attaches itself by the claws of its false legs, and still further secures its body to it by means of silk threads.

In this position it remains quiescent for a short period, varying according to the temperature. After a time the caterpillar begins to move its head in a series of jerks, until at length its mouth parts are thrown off, and the caterpillar pushes itself out of its original covering, through the aperture thus formed, assisting itself in this process both by its thoracic legs, and by means of what may be termed vermicular movements. This process is termed a moult. To further understand this process, it is necessary to add that, at the time of moulting an exudation appears between the old epidermis and the new-formed one, thus materially facilitating their separation. This moulting is a veritable crisis in the life-history of the caterpillar. For during this process it changes to a certain extent its respiratory and its digestive organs, its skull, its organs of mastication, and, in a word, all those hardened tissues which could not keep pace with the prodigiously fast growth of the caterpillar. This moulting has, consequently, not incorrectly, been termed, "the sickness," because it is apt to kill off all weakly creatures; and strong and weak alike are during that period more subject to disease.

The Bombyx as a rule undergoes four such moults or sicknesses, though in some cases only three are seen. The period during which this process lasts is about 24 hours in the case of the first three moultings; and varies from 36 to 48 hours for the fourth and last. Thus, the life of the caterpillar may be divided into the following 5 ages:—

First age ...	From birth to first	mutation	...	5—6	days
Second age ...	„ first to second	„	...	4	„
Third age ...	„ second to third	„	...	4—5	„
Fourth age ...	„ third to fourth	„	...	5—7	„
Fifth age ...	„ fourth to fifth	„	...	7–12	„

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The second age is thus seen to be the shortest; and the last age the longest.

For a short time after each moulting—perhaps just the time required to regain its strength, and for the new outer tissues to harden, the caterpillar remains practically in a "torpid" condition. Its head during this time becomes a darker colour, and its body is of a reddish or greenish yellow colour. But this state of affairs does not last long. It soon begins again to feed ravenously, and so continues until the time comes for its next moult. After its last change the caterpillar consumes an enormous quantity of leaf, until on completing its growth it begins to lose its appetite and finally completely stops feeding. Then for a period of about 24 hours it passes through what may be termed a "sleep of silk"—it lies motionless, and its only function is that of thoroughly emptying out its digestive tubes, losing in this process 12 per cent. of its weight, and becoming of a transparent yellowish or whitish colour.. Not long after, it appears to wake up from its slumbers. It grows very restive, moving its head about from side to side; and soon starts roaming about, until after much searching it eventually settles upon some suitable corner, and at once begins to wind itself round with threads of silk. At first the threads are apparently placed in an aimless manner from side to side—these however, are merely the ropes which are to hold the cocoon. Soon, however, the caterpillar is seen to move its head in a more regular manner describing curves of 8, and the shape the cocoon is assuming is clearly visible. It has been calculated that in this manner the silkworm moves its head 69 times per minute through a distance of 5 millimeters. The covering becomes thicker and thicker, and after a period of about 72 hours the work is finished, and the silkworm is completely enveloped in its golden covering of silk. Thus the cocoon is formed.

The Cocoon.

The cocoon varies in the different breeds both in colour and in shape. Thus the cocoon may be white, yellow, green, round, waisted, oval, &c. The cocoon consists of two parts, an outer lining or web, known as floss, which was spun by the worm in first getting its bearing; and of an inner part, the cocoon proper.

The whole is made up of one continuous thread. But, the thread of the floss diminishes in diameter from the interior towards the exterior, whereas the thread of the cocoon proper diminishes in diameter towards the interior; so much so that the ends of both cannot be made use of.

This diameter, as well as the weight of the cocoons, varies according to the breed, to the sex, and to the conditions under which the insects, have been brought up. As a rule, in the same breed, female cocoons would be heavier than male cocoons.

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A few measurements may, however, be of interest; though it must be remembered that these measurements vary even in the same species.

The thread is said to have a mean diameter varying from a 7- to a 15-thousandth part of a millimeter. Its length in a cocoon varies from 1,312 to 3,608 feet according to Haberlandt; and from 1,312 to 4,920 feet according to Robinet. Moreover, it is so light, that 3,750 metres would be required to make up a gramme weight. In other words, one ounce of silk would represent a length of thread of 5,590,909 feet. In Southern European breeds the cocoon becomes of a darker colour towards the centre, whereas in the Japanese breeds the colour would be darker towards the exterior.

Robinet gives the following percentages as the composition of the cocoon, *viz* :—

Water	...	68·2 per cent
Silk	...	14·3 „ „
Web	...	0·7 „ „
Chrysalis	...	16·8 „ „

The cocoons continue to lose in weight from the beginning to the end, this loss being considerable, as will be seen from the following table :—

During the first 8 days	... 40 per cent.
During the next 14 days	... 10 per cent.
During the last two days	... 25 per cent.

The Chrysalis.

It has been stated above that at the time the worm proceeded to retire behind its silken covering, it had become of a white, wax-like colour; in addition, the different joints soon become more marked and the epidermis becomes almost transparent. These characteristics become more pronounced during the first few days of its imprisonment, until on the 4th or 5th day the skin cracks down the back, and the insect forces itself out through this opening, the old skin remaining as a folded membrane, round the last abdominal rings.

But the insect which has now appeared is in many ways quite a new creature. It appears to be without head or legs; its colour has changed; its skin becomes quite hardened; and rudimentary wings folded over the breast can be distinguished. This is the "*Chrysalis*." In the same way vast changes occur in the internal structure of the insect, chief among which may be mentioned the development of an air bladder, and of the reproductive organs.

The Chrysalis stage lasts from 18 to 20 days, though it is found that by increasing or diminishing the temperature, this period of time may be altered.

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The Moth.

This metamorphosis having been completed, the covering splits near the head, and the moth, the insect in its perfect form makes its appearance.

The moth has now to force its way out of the cocoon. To enable it to do this with ease, the larva when constructing the cocoon had left a false opening at one of the ends of the cocoon, an opening merely covered by a few threads. In addtion to this the moth secretes from its mouth a strongly alkaline liquid with which it moistens this thin end of the cocoon and thus forces its way out without breaking the threads. The birth or appearance of the moth always takes place in the early morning, probably so that it may without delay obtain the full benefits of the sun for as long a period as possible. And, indeed, it is sadly in need of a drying, for on its first appearance it is quite damp, its wings are crimped and damp, and its antennæ are bent back. Under the influence of the sun all this is soon remedied and the moth takes to flight.

Sometimes the females are the first to make their appearance; sometimes the males. But, it is generally found that in the end the two sexes are fairly evenly represented.

The moth naturally has a distinct head, throat and abdomen; and is of a light yellow or greyish colour.

The wings of the male are from 1·57 to 1·77 inches in length; whereas those of the females are slightly larger, 1·97 to 2·08 inches. The males have broader antennæ than the females.

Soon after issuing, the moths couple, remaining coupled for two or three hours, and in a few minutes, or it may be 4 or 5 hours after separation, the female begins to deposit her eggs, one by one. The eggs when being deposited get covered with a gelatinous material, which causes them to adhere to the surface on which they are placed.

The female goes on laying as a rule for 3 days; six to eight-tenths of the eggs are deposited during the first day, two or three-tenths during the second, and but few during the third day, one female laying from 300 to 700 eggs.

The reproduction of its species having thus, as far as possible, been assured, the moth has no further object in life. It therefore dies, the male generally having preceded the female.

Thus it has been seen that during a period of about 65 days, the silkworm has travelled through its different stages of life: 8 to 12 days in its perfect form, a moth; 15 to 20 days as a chrysalis; and 30 to 40 days as a larva—and some insight has been obtained into the physiological exigencies of the Bombyx. In a future article it is proposed to give some details regarding the method of housing the insect so as to adequately meet its many and varied requirements; and, further, to describe the best method of rearing the insects.

A. C.

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Insect Ravages in the Goalpara District, Assam.

The charcteristic feature of the earthquake of the 12th June 1897, was the series of, more or less, deep and wide crevices and fissures, running longitudinally, with and in the vicinity of river beds, irrigation channels, roads, paths, &c. This feature was absent along rivers in the waterless tract of the Forest Reserves, except where such beds happen to flow perennially, no indication being visible where the flow was subterranean. As the existing record * makes conspicuously

* 1893-94 ...	...	150·77 inches.
1894-95 ...	...	117·68 ,,
1895-96 ...	...	142·57 ,,
1896-97 ...	...	122·16 ,,
1897-98 ...	...	188·84 ,,

obvious, the rainfall of the year was much in excess of that of any of the previous five years, floods were continuous and aggressive, yet the submergence and consequent killing off of Sâl, Khair and Koroi (*Albizzzia procera*) in normally inundated areas of this tract was considerably under the average. In the same region, too, windfalls and derelicts were not more numerous than usual, and the upheavals of trees so prominent south of the area, was not a feature of it. The higher and steeper slopes of the Bhutan Hills were scarped in numerous places and over a large area, but individual landslips were surface ones only, and did not carry any great tonnage with them. The cold weather was erratic, but snow fell in the hills to a greater extent than usual, covering a much greater surface and apparently of greater depth. This was especially the case early in February. The after-effects of the earthquake on vegetation beyond forest limits were visible in the unevenly distributed moisture in the coarse grasses, which proved so troublesome in firing traces, &c., and whether these were extended or not to entomological phenomena, the season from that point of view, has been the most interesting one, of which any record has been kept.

The complete defoliation of Sâl throughout the district reported in 1893-94 was repeated again this year. About the close of August a *Dasychira* appeared in the Hèl and Charaidaka blocks, and despite the heavy rainfall, persisted. Adverse circumstances did not permit of much expansion, however, till a new generation manifested itself in the following November, at this time other varities of caterpillars appeared and the area affected extended over the greater portion of the Ripu Reserve, and commenced an attack on Chirang. But a third generation, about the close of January, was the most mischievous, and invaded almost every Sâl tree throughout the Division. Thus a mere mass of upright bare poles, without a vestige

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of foliage, was the aspect of the forests early in March, except for a few young Sâl trees near the Bhutan border on the west of the district. When the leaves of the trees should have fallen, none were left to fall, all having been devoured by the active pests feeding on them. The inflorescence, which usually appears about the close of January or early in February, was conspicuous by its absence, not through having provided food for the larvæ, but for want of development. New shoots and leaves only appeared in March, and were permitted to develope till the close of the month, when, they too, fell to the voracious maw of the invader, possibly a fourth generation. The result is that there is practically no Sâl seed this year. Other trees suffered as well as Sâl, but to an insignificant extent, except the small stock of *Terminalia tomentosa* at the west of the district, which was stripped of all foliage like the Sâl. The pests did not completely disappear till May.

There was some difficulty at first in obtaining specimens of the pupa and imago, rain and parasitical hosts having possibly disposed of most of them. Specimens of larvæ sent on two occasions to Calcutta, unfortunately died before it was possible to rear and identify them, except in one case. Rearing was then attempted locally, and the imago of three varieties sent to Calcutta. They had been damaged in transit, and the identifications are doubtful, as reported by the courteous Superintendent of the Indian Museum, who has been most kind in affording information.

The first moth reared was the *Leucoma diaphana*, Moore, an insect not hitherto known as destructive to Sâl. It is very common in the district, and it is very doubtful whether it took any part in the defoliation of Sâl. It was, however, very conspicuous at the time of the first appearance of the Dasychira.

Dasychira sp (but not the *Thwaitesii*), was the prominent and most active agent in the denudation of the forests. It is so like the *Thwaitesii* in appearance that it was confounded with it for a long time. No less than four generations of it attacked the foliage. Its vigour and numbers were marvellous, but some destructive parasitical agency never left it, and whilst swarming in thousands, large numbers were observed to be in a moribund condition, which attracted red ants, and then destruction proceeded apace. The Guma Reserve alone, about 26 sq. miles, was a mass of Sâl foliage and inflorescence in March, prognosticating an excellent seed season, when this particular enemy, visible before, but only in numbers to be ignored, swarmed into the reserve with a vitality which left it as bare as forests further east, by the close of April. Caterpillars were collected on the 23rd March, passed into the pupal stage on the 30th and 31st March, and the imago emerged on the 20th April, 1898.

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An agent as active as the *Dasychira*, almost as numerous, and working almost contemporaneously with it, was the *Lymantria grandis. Walk.*

The caterpillar is very hairy, of an ashy-brown colour overlying a darker hue, with two conspicuous tufts on the first segment of the body. It is about two inches long, possessed of immense vitality, and seemed a healthier subject than the *Dasychira.* It has not been previously observed here, and though a few specimens found their way to the Chirang Reserve, the majority favoured the Ripu and Guma Reserves. Caterpillars collected on the 23rd March, passed into the pupal stage on the 30th and 31st as did the *Dasychira*, but the metamorphosis into the imago was more rapid, occurring on the 10th, 11th, and 12th April.

The other specimen named was the *Trabala Vishnu, Lef.* but this insect was not conspicuous in numbers or energy. Numerous other larvæ were at work in the general defoliation.

The damage done to Sâl by these continuous attacks must be serious. Assimilation and development is arrested, numerous young shoots and twigs die, and it is obvious that a number of the unsightly knots on branches have their origin in this manner. Poor soils and shallow exposed situations and ill-grown trees are first attacked, but depredations are not limited to these, and it is astounding how complete the defoliation is, when not a vestige of a leaf is left. Numbers can only be imagined from the area worked over, which in Reserved Forests alone, exceeds 500 sq. miles.

From careful enquiries made from "the oldest inhabitants," &c., it would appear that these invasions have been more frequent and destructive since fire-protection was introduced, and the Division's records would appear to bear this out. The first mention of the pest was that made by Mr. W.R. Fisher, in 1878, and then there is silence for ten years. The next reference is in 1892. It is both possible and probable that some interesting episodes of intervening years have not been recorded, but any unusual manifestation could not have passed without some notice. Wholesale fire-protection was only attempted in 1888-89, but even over Sâl areas was hardly effective till 1891, and it is since then that defoliating insects have returned annually in larger or smaller hosts. Another effect of fire-protection has been the partial substitution of woody for fibrous undergrowth, and this is encouraging the growth of Millettias, Bridelias and Derris, which are making portions of the forests impenetrable.

Last year's Sâl seedlings have thriven considerably, and the extension of the tree as noted in previous reports is conspicuous. Most other trees produced seed profusely, but the period and duration of the inflorescence were not strictly normal; in all cases, the tendency being to late development. The orchids usually prominently in flower throughout the whole of May, were

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nearly a month late; and the inflorescence did not last for more than a fortnight. This was typical of most trees,

"Eaux et Forets."

The following is a translation of a report addressed to the President of the French Republic by the Minister of Agriculture, and of a decree relating to the denomination of Forest Officials, taken from the *Revue des Eaux et Forêts* for May 15th, 1898.

Report.—"*Eaux et Forêts*" are two terms, united by the relation of cause to effect, two words which, taken together, formerly appeared to constitute but one. From time immemorial it has been instinctively felt that between "*les eaux*" and "*les forêts*' there existed a close bond of mutual dependence, and that apart from the produce furnished in the form of wood and other material, the forests rendered signal service in storing rain water and in regulating the flow of springs, streams, and rivers. The Forest Administration has, therefore, been called upon to take action not only in respect of wooded areas placed under State management, but also in respect of a certain number of questions concerning the management *des eaux*; such for instance as the prevention of clearing private forest-lands, the re-afforesting and consolidation of mountain slopes, and the controlling of torrents. Its duties in this respect have recently been extended, and by a decree dated 1st July, 1897, it has been entrusted with the preparation and execution of works for utilizing for agricultural purposes the water of of forest and pastoral regions. Under these conditions, I am of opinion that it is expedient to confer on Forest Officers ('agents et préposés') the title of Officers of the "Eaux et Forêts," under which title they were formerly known. It is also necessary, by constituting a single list, to ensure unity of action and interest in the department charged with the supervision. This is the object of the subjoined decree which I have the honour to submit for your sanction.

The President of the French Republic, on the report of the Minister of Agriculture, *Decrees*:

I. Officers of the Forest Administration are designated Officers of the "Eaux et Forêts."

II. The members of the protective staff are borne on a single list of overseers, all having the same professional and military duties, and the same powers for the protection of the forests, and for the prevention of forest offences under the jurisdiction of the Administration of the "Eaux et Forêts."

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III. The President of the Council, Minister of Agriculture, is charged with the execution of this decree.

Paris, 19*th April*, 1898.

II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

The Coopers Hill Colours.

SIR,—I have lately had an opportunity of reading certain letters which have appeared in the correspondence columns of your valuable paper on the subject of an Imperial Forest Blazer.

In one of the letters, dated the 12th March last, "A Coopers Hill man" says; "just at present the C. H. Colours seem to be rather kaleidoscopic." At the time the letter I refer to was written, it is quite true that C. H. men were wearing all possible shades and combinations of blue and yellow. But I am glad to say that the Coopers Hill Colours question, which has been under the consideration of a representative committee of C. H. men since the beginning of 1897, has now been finally and, I hope, satisfactorily settled, so that the complaint that the C. H. Colours are "kaleidoscopic" is now removed.

The new Colours have been registered in England and certain firms have been selected in the Presidency towns and appointed agents for the supply of the Colours in this country. A circular letter has already been issued to all C. H. men in India giving full information on the subject, but if any C. H. man in the Forest Department has not received a copy, I shall be glad to send him one if he will communicate with me. I trust you will be able to find room in your paper for these few lines, as they will probably be of interest to Coopers Hill men in the Forest Department, especially as many of the circular letters which have been issued about the Colours, have not probably reached their destination owing to the difficulty which has been experienced in ascertaining addresses.

EGERTON ROAD,
LAHORE,
July 30*th*, 1898.

H. P. BURT.

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Does the amount of tannin in Cassia bark increase with age?

SIR,—A few months ago, I saw some figures showing the results of some experiments on *Cassia auriculata*, such figures tending to show that the percentage of tannin extracted increased considerably up to a certain age of the plant. I thought that I had seen the figures in a number of the 'Indian Forester,' but I cannot find the reference, so apparently my memory has failed me.

I wish for the information in order to obtain some data for the calculation of the rotation for working *Cassia auriculata*: the rotation hitherto adopted in this circle (Central Circle, Bombay), is five years, but I question whether it should not be a longer one.

Any information tending to fix the correct rotation would be acceptable.

L. S. OSMASTON,
D. F. O. Working Plans, C. C.

United States' Forest Department.

It was mentioned roughly in a recent number of the "Indian Forester" that the States possess a score or so of Forest Officers, and a very efficient Research Bureau, but no Working Plans as yet. As regards the district staff, the following information is more precise, being drawn from Circular No. 11 of the Division of Forestry.

The United States forest legislation is of two classes, Federal and State. The Federal law of 1891 empowers the President to set apart any public woodlands as reservations, in any State. Accordingly, seventeen reservations, amounting to 17½ million acres, were notified. In 1897, thirteen more Reserves, covering over 21 million acres, were proclaimed. There has, however, been a certain amount of obstruction by commercial interests, and more legitimate delay is caused by the enquiries and reports which seem to be in progress. So that up to date, it can hardly be said that the States possess any forests properly so called, but only public wooded-domains,

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The State laws are those of New York, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin and Minnesota only, the other States seem to have done nothing.

New York began in 1885, and in 1895 constituted the present "Commission of Fisheries, Game and Forests." It consists of five members, a President on 5,000 dollars a year and travelling expenses, and four Commissioners on 1,000 dollars and expenses. They meet four times a year, and have a Secretary on 2,000 dollars.

Their duties are, to propagate and distribute food, fish, and game, to enforce game laws, and to control the Adirondack Park and forest reserves. There are 35 "fish and game protectors and foresters" drawing 500 to 2,000 dollars a year, with travelling expenses, and *one half of the fines from prosecutions.* How exceedingly vicious this last provision is, can only be realised by those who have read the fulminations of certain Indian Governments against their own officers for carrying out their own rules on a very modest scale. There is also a certain strictness about forest fires and offences which may be commended. All income from State forests is paid into the treasury to form a *fund for the purchase of wild or assessed lands* included in the Adirondack Park boundary. The cutting of trees, or even barking them, is punishable at the rate of 25 *dollars per tree*, plus treble the damage done. No encouragement to forest offenders there!

Any lands within the desired Park boundary may be expropriated at any time by the Board, under rules resembling our Land Acquisition Act, but no compensation is payable till the Board is satisfied that the late owner has committed no trespass or other offence in the State property.

Pennsylvania began in 1893, by appointing an Engineer and a Botainst to examine the country and propose reservations, either of State, or of private lands, if necessary. In 1895, a Division of Forestry was established, and 31,600 copies of its Annual Reports were ordered to be printed and distributed. In 1897, all constables of townships were made ex-officio fire-wardens, with power to claim assistance, and to enforce protection by arrest without a warrant. To encourage private owners, a remission up to 80 per cent of all taxes was allowed on lands carrying more than 50 trees above 8 inches in diameter per acre, up to 50 acres per estate. Lands reverting to the State through non-payment of taxes, were to be offered to the Forest Administration. If suitable, the taxes due were paid, and the lands became forest, free of all taxes thenceforward. In 1897, a Commission was appointed to select three solid blocks, of 40,000 acres each, in the basins of the Delaware, the Susquehanna, and the Ohio rivers, and to expropriate when necessary for the purpose.

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Wisconsin is the latest recruit to the good cause. In 1897, a Commission was appointed to organise a Forestry Department; and for the creation of forests out of lands belonging to the State, lapsing through non-payment of taxes, or given up by the owners. The Commission's Report was to take the form of a Bill to be brought forward at the next Session of the State legislature.

In Minnesota, things are even less advanced. In 1897, a Bill was passed by the Lower House, but not by the Senate. It provided for the acquisition of reserves, and proposed a Board of nine members. Town and country officials were also appointed to the Forestry Boards. The Reserves were to be acquired by means which certainly appear unique. Any owner of denuded, or waste, or sandy, or rocky, or rough prairie lands, might, with the consent of the Board previously obtained after full discussion, deed such lands in free-gift to the State, dedicating them thus to forest purposes. The Board then had full power to treat the lands in such manner as it might think best. At least once in every five years, the income was to be divided as follows: viz., one-third to the State, and two-thirds to the public educational institutions. The State' s third was again divided, one-half of it going to the State, one-fourth to the county, and one-fourth to the township in which the property lay. Thus the final division works out as follows; to the state two twelfths, to the county one-twelfth, to the township one-twelfth, and to education eight-twelfths. The owner had the power of designating the particular institutions which he preferred should benefit, but if he failed to designate, then the eight-twelfths were divided between the public schools and the university, six-twelfths to the former and two twelfths to the latter. The owner's inducement to part with the land is not very obvious; he would save certain taxes, and he would have the power of designating an educational institution. Whether the inducement would suffice, cannot be known unless the Bill becomes law. In any case, the forests thus acquired cannot be worth much for a long time to come, and as the Forest Department was to be self-supporting from the first, the idea seems to be somewhat feeble.

The Longicorn Beetle on Mulberry trees in the Punjab.

SIR,

I have read with much interest 'B. O. C.'s article on the beetle that he has found in the *living* mulberry trees

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(*Morus alba*) in the Shahdera-cum-Jugian plantation, in the Indian Forester for June 1898, which has just reached me, and as I have also observed the habits of the beetle which he has found, I wish to take this opportunity of placing my observations on record.

I first noticed the damage which the larvæ of the beetle in question was doing when I accompanied Mr. Smythies, Conservator of Forests, Upper Burma, then Deputy Director of the Imperial Forest School, on the Punjab tour in 1892; and on three subsequent occasions I have noticed the increasing amount of harm which is being done by the larvæ of this beetle. In January 1897, Mr. Gleadow, Deputy Director of the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, "B. O. C.," and myself, cut down several of the coppice shoots with a view to discovering the beetle, but though we found larvæ in various stages of development, we naturally failed to find a beetle, which, as B. O. C. has shown, does not pupate until the month of July.

"B. O. C's" remarks with regard to the *modus operandi* of the beetle would, I think, lead one to suppose that the damage done by the beetle was almost entirely confined to the heart-wood of the mulberry. This I do not think is the case, as, unless my memory plays me false, I remember noticing on most of the trees which had been attacked for two or three years, wounds on the stem or branches around which the bark was stained red and dead. The red stain was due to the exudation of sap from the wound running down the bark of the tree. On closer examination it appeared that the sap-wood under the dead bark had been destroyed by the larva of the beetle, and I distinctly remember thinking at the time that the loss of fuel from this cause alone must be considerable.

In more than one instance I observed that a branch, on the lower side of which a wound had been made by the larva of the beetle, had been subsequently broken (probably by wind) and bent down, without being completely severed from the tree, and noticed that a number of small branches had sprung from the thus injured branch, and thought at the time that the remarkable habit of the mulberry at Shahdera in forming a short stem and then developing a mass of small branches might, to some extent, be traced to the damage done by the beetle in destroying the sap-wood and thus causing the attacked branch to become bent downwards: the development of the numerous small branches on the injured branch being a direct consequence of this injury.

The larvæ of the beetle were first observed by me on the main stems of the coppice shoots of mulberry, only three or four years old, and three inches in diameter. The holes made by the larvæ in these coppice shoots were quite small, about one-eighth to one-sixth inch in diameter. Some of the holes were only two or three feet above the ground. Small heaps of powder (of

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wood) at the foot of the coppice shoot first drew my attention to the presence of something unusual and led to the discovery of the holes in the stem referred to above.

Further observations showed that the larvæ existed in the Mulberry trees in nearly all the compartments of the plantation in which this species occurred in any quantity. In the older trees (which had been attacked longer), the larval holes were much larger, and the visible signs of the presence of the larvæ were much more noticeable, since the wounds in the sap-wood to which I have drawn attention, were found, in a more or less advanced stage, in the place of the small holes which were the principal evidence of the presence of the larvæ in the younger stems. The stained portion of bark, caused by the sap flowing down the stem, is very characteristic in the later stages of development of the larva, and allows of the detection of the attacked trees at a considerable distance.

Another point which is, I think worth recording is, that although the larvæ of the Longicorn beetle, *Cœlosterna scabrata* (?), are found throughout the Shahdera-cum-Jugian plantation in such large numbers, no traces of it have, I believe, ever been found at Changa Manga, which is only about 40 miles distant. I have searched for it whenever I have been at Changa Manga, but have never been able to find a single trace of its presence. When we remember what the area of the Changa Manga plantation is, and how, in many of its compartments, nearly the whole of the growing stock has been transformed from Shisham (*Dalbergia Sissoo*) to Mulberry (*Morus alba*), we are in a position to appreciate the extent of the damage which may be caused, if the Longicorn beetle, which is doing such material damage at Shahdera, establishes itself at Changa Manga.

"B O. C." states that the plantation at Shahdera consists of equal parts of Shisham (*Dalbergia Sissoo*) and Mulberry (*Morus alba*), but does not refer to the different origins of these two species.

As at Changa Manga, the plantation at Shahdera was one of *pure* Shisham. Some of the oldest compartments (which I saw before they were coppiced), consisted of a growing stock of *pure* Shisham, with a slight undergrowth of Mulberry and grass.

The plantation is situated on the low bank of the Ravi river, and is frequently inundated by that river when it is in flood during the winter months.

The proportion of Mulberry in the coppiced portion of the crop, varies inversely with the elevation of the ground above the river. In the lowest lying compartments, the coppice portion of the growing stock is pure Mulberry, while in the highest portions of the area, especially in the Jugian portion of the plantation, the proportion of Shisham in the growing stock is distinctly greater.

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How did the Mulberry replace the Shisham in the *first instance*?

I believe, I am right in saying, that the Mulberry (*Morus alba*) is not indigenous in the plains of the Punjab, but that it is found growing wild along the lowest and outermost slopes of the Himalayas, through which the Ravi has cut its bed; and I think that the most natural explanation of the appearance of the Mulberry in the Shahdera-cum-Jugian plantation *in the first instance* (and I am not now referring to its *subsequent* seeding and further distribution) is, that the seeds were brought down by the Ravi when in flood; left in the plantation, when the floods subsided; and germinated readily in the Sailaba which constitutes the soil of the plantation.

Several herbaceous plants are also found in the plantation, which are not indigenous in the plains of the Punjab and which are found wild in the submontane Himalayan tract; these have been undoubtedly introduced by the agency of the Ravi and their presence only confirms the belief which is, I think, now generally accepted, that in the first instance the Mulberry was introduced by the agency of the River Ravi when in flood.

Birds and animals (particularly jackals and cattle which are very fond of mulberries), are undoubtedly very active agents in the *further* dissemination of the Mulberry after it has first been introduced, but I do not think that they are responsible for its original introduction.

The facts that the Mulberry is able to produce fertile seed at an early age (coppice shoots 3 to 4 years' old bear a quantity of fertile seed), and that it is able to thrive under the light shade of the Shisham, have no doubt, helped it materially to displace the Shisham. which originally occupied the ground. Another point which may be noted is that under the seedling Shisham crops, those last cut over at any rate, young Mulberry plants of ages varying from one to six or seven years, were found in considerable quantities. These were cut over when the Shisham trees were coppiced, and a large number of coppice shoots of Mulberry sprang up with those of the Shisham. A very dense growth of grass, principally *Saccharium Sara*, always comes on the area after the stools have been coppiced, and the young stool shoots have to struggle through this in order to live. The Mulberry is capable of enduring more shade than the Shisham, and also grows faster, in early youth at all events, and thus has a great advantage over the stool shoots of the latter species.

Frosts are common at Shahdera and I have observed that while the Shisham is cut back by the frost, the Mulberry does not, as, a rule, suffer materially from it.

Where the grass is dense, it protects the Shisham shoots from the frost for the first year or two, it is true, but on the

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other hand directly suppresses the Shisham much more than it does the Mulberry.

The above remarks show that, unless the Shisham is protected from the Mulberry in its early youth, it cannot exist with it, and that, if it is considered necessary to preserve the Shisham, it is absolutely necessary to protect it efficiently from the more shade-enduring and faster-growing Mulberry.

C. GILBERT ROGERS,
Deputy Conservator of Forests on furlough.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Impregnation of Indian timbers.

This question has on several occasions been under consideration, and various attempts have been made to impregnate Indian timbers, but, for one reason or other, the experiments were discontinued.

2. The following is a short résumé of what has been done up to date, as given by Dr. Warth.

Impegnation with creosote.

An apparatus for impregnating railway sleepers with creosote was set up at Bally, near Howrah, by the East Indian Railway and was in existence in April 1854. In appears that the process was given up because the hard woods of Lower Bengal were not adapted for impregnation, and no suitable soft woods were available in large quantities. Moreover, the creosoted pine sleepers from England were probably cheaper. Nothing further of any moment has been done at Bally since 1863. About the year 1868 or 1869, the East Indian Railway erected an apparatus on the pneumatic principle at Aligarh to impregnate chil *(Pinus excelsa)* sleepers with creosote. In 1874 it was reported that the sleepers treated with creosote were lasting very well. No steaming or artificial drying was practised, and the result obtained would seem to indicate that, even without this, the process is sufficient to considerably increase the durability of this otherwise very perishable timber. The reasons why the process was given up are not stated. A creosoting apparatus was etected at Sahibganj about the year 1870 and another at Bareilly, concerning which no information is available.

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IMPREGNATION WITH PERCHLORIDE OF MERCURY.

About the year 1868 an apparatus for kyanising sleepers was imported by the Great Indian Peninsular Railway and a few soft wood sleepers were impregnated, which were found to be in good order at the end of four years. The process was discontinued as sleepers thus treated were found to be no cheaper than those made of teak.

IMPREGNATION WITH CHLORIDE OF ZINC.

In 1864-65, works for treating sleepers with chloride of zinc were set up at Kotri on the Indus, but the work was stopped in 1867. The result is reported to have been most unsatisfactory. About the year 1868-69 an apparatus for the pneumatic impregnation of sleepers with chloride of zinc was set up at Phillour. Some deodar and chil sleepers treated by this process were used in the railway line between Amritsar and Delhi, but the renewals in four years amounted to 6 per cent. In 1874 the apparatus was for sale. It is believed that the chloride of zinc was not very effective. However, the ballast used in the railway line is said to have been very inferior.

IMPREGNATION WITH SULPHATE OF COPPER.

In 1866 a certain number of chil and deodar sleepers were impregnated at Ghaziabad with a solution containing 3 per cent. sulphate of copper, under a pressure of 150 lbs. per square inch. They were placed in the Jumna bridge, and in 1870 it was reported that they were lasting well. The reason why the process was discontinued is not stated.

In 1865-66 Boucherie's process of impregnating with sulphate of copper was employed at Palghat on the Madras Railway. The woods experimented on belonged to 44 different kinds, all growing in the forests of the vicinity. However, the engineers reported that the strength of the timber and its durability were rather lessened than increased by the process, which was accordingly abandoned.

The results of the experiments hitherto made in India as here recorded are not conclusive. Much money has been spent without adequate results, but it does not follow from the numerous failures that have been experienced that if persistent efforts are now made to impregnate timber in India with antiseptic substances, the result will not be favourable. But it is essential that only good and effective methods should be adopted under competent supervision, and that the experiments should be continued sufficiently long, on a systematic plan, to show in what respects they require alteration and improvement.

3. Dr. Warth in 1878 proposed the establishment of a factory at Delhi or Jagadhri and in the Dehra Dun for impregnating

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chil sleepers, but the proposal was not accepted at the time. However, circumstances have since then materially altered and there is now a largely increased demand not merely for railway sleepers, but also for scantlings of the better classes for building. The species of Indian timbers, the resistance of which against decay is equal to the durability of their technical qualities, are limited, and some of these are again heavy and excessively hard and consequently expensive to transport and difficult and costly to work, with the result that after all these years but a very small number of them have been generally accepted as adapted for railway sleepers and Public Works.

4. It is true that by the introduction of pyinkado into the sleeper trade, the Forest Department have considerably widened the field of supply, and there are probably other trees in Assam and in Burma which will be found equally useful. However, though undoubtedly large forest tracts, rich in pyinkado exist, especially in Burma, we can never be quite certain that the supply will be able to cope for ever with the steadily increasing demand. Moreover, the cost of transport of this heavy timber limits the area in which it can be profitably used. The report on the timber trade in the Punjab shows clearly that we must sooner or later expect a contraction in the supply of deodár timber from the forests of Native States, and consequently a material rise in its price. Again, the area of timber-bearing sál forests is but limited, and here also the weight of the timber limits the area in which it can be profitably used.

5. On the other hand, we have large forest areas yielding timbers structurally quite strong enough and fit for all the purposes for which a few selected naturally durable timbers have hitherto alone been employed. First in importance come the Himalayan pines—*Pinus longifolia*, *Pinus excelsa*, *Abies Smithiana* and *Abies Webbiana*—the technical qualities of which compare, so far as they have been recorded, with the deodar as follows :—

		Average weight.	Average transverse strength.
Cedrus deodara	...	35	334
Pinus excelsa	...	30	...
Pinus longifolia	...	38	800
Abies Smithiana	...	30	...
Abies Webbiana	...	30	440

Experiments with these woods as regards the resistance they offer to the separation of their fibres in various directions, should, as far as practicable, be made at the Forest School without delay and the results reported.

We have next a considerable supply of assain (*Terminalia tomentosa*) in the forests of the North-Western Provinces,

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Assam, &c. The techical qualities of this timber compare with those of sal as follows :—

	Average weight per cubic foot.	Average transverse strength.
Sàl	38—65	800
Assain	58—65	800

Again in Burma we have vast forest areas of eng (*Dipterocarpus tuberculatus*), the physical qualities of which are all that can be desired and compare with those of teak and pyinkado as follows :—

	Average weight per cubic foot.	Average transverse strength.
Tectona grandis ...	40	600
Xylia dolabriformis ...	60	900
Dipterocarpus tuberculatus	54	750

I have only enumerated a few species of which large supplies exist, but there are many others equally useful but for their liability to early decay.

6. Hitherto we have been using the accumulated stock of trees in the timber of which technical qualities and durability have been fairly balanced ; but everything said in the foregoing paragraphs seems to indicate that the time has arrived when, in order to meet a steadily increasing demand at reasonable rates, energetic steps should be taken to protect other timbers equally useful as regards their physical qualities from premature decay, by impregnating them. There is hardly a country where this has not been done and where constant progress is not made in doing so.

7. Before, however, I am in a position to place definite proposals before the Government of India and Local Governments, several points, which I am unable to gather from previous enquiries and notes, must be cleared up. I understand that though somewhat smaller dimensions will be accepted to a correct lowest limit of 5″ 9″ × 6″ × 4″ for narrow gauge sleepers, and 8″ 11″ × 8″ × 5″ for broad gauge sleepers. it is desirable that the sleepers should be supplied of dimensions not less than 6″ × 7″ ×, 4½ and 9″6″ × 9″ × 5″ respectively. Our calculations should therefore take the latter figures into consideration, and we may roughly calculate the narrow gauge sleeper to contain 1¼, the broad gauge 3, cubic feet.

The first question to be asked and answered is at what *cost* can sleepers of such dimensions, and other scantlings per cubic foot of such timbers which it is desirable to impregnate, be placed in a central depôt, which should in every respect be suitable, both as regards supply and demand, for the establishment of an impregnating factory dealing with not less than 3 to 4,00,000 cubic feet per annum.

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8. The next question to be settled is the selection of the impregnating fluid. Creosoted sleepers, that is, those impregnated with heavy coal-tars (phenol), have lasted extremely well in India; but this method, even in Europe, is twice as expensive as impregnation with metallic salts. Moreover, there are considerable difficulties connected with the transport of phenol, which apparently can only be safely imported in iron tanks. The cost of impregnating with imported coal-tar would in all probability be prohibitive, and it is a question for consideration whether phenol could not be prepared in India at a cost which would bring its employment for impregnation of wood within practical range. This question will be referred to the Reporter on Economic Products. The various kinds of timber will, under pressure and heat, absorb from 6 to 10 pounds of phenol per cubic foot.

9. Of metallic salts, chloride of zinc has proved all round the most successful, and is, moreover, the cheapest material that can be employed. It does not render the wood brittle like sulphate of copper does, and if used in sufficiently dilute solutions, 1 in 40 to 1 in 50, it does not react injuriously on the iron with which it comes in contact in the way both sulphate of copper and chloride of mercury do. The next question for the Reporter on Economic Products would be, what is the lowest cost at which chloride of zinc can be imported, and whether it might not be produced in India more cheaply and, if so, at what probable cost and where.

The chief objection to employing chloride of zinc is, that it is so extremely easily washed out of the timber. To prevent this, it has been mixed in America with solution of glue instead of plain water, and the timber has been subjected to a second impregnation with tannin extracts, which transforms the glue into a leathery substance unaffected by the action of water. This process has yielded the best results. It is a question whether glue in sufficient quantity, and at remunerative cost, could be obtained in India, and to solve this, the kind assistance of the Reporter on Economic Products would again be required. As regards tannin extracts, we can prepare these in any quantity required and at sufficiently low rates.

10. Experiments made in the School Circle and recorded in the Appendix Series of the "India Forester" for 1893, show that wood-tars have been made at a cost of Rs. 2-8 per maund, a rate which can probably be further reduced; and it is stated that with an admixture of $\frac{1}{3}$ of heavy coal-tar, it is nearly as adhesive and water-proof as pure coal-tar.

It must be ascertained whether this material could be permanently produced in sufficient quantity, and at what cost it could be laid down at a centre selected for an impregnating station. It is possible that the cheaper supply of wood-tar might render creosoting with this, or with this mixed with

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coal-tar, practicable. Under any circumstance, it is most important to ascertain whether a partial impregnation, with a mixture of wood-tar and coal, of timber already impregnated with chloride of zinc, would not prevent the action of water on this salt.

B. RIBBENTROP,
Inspector-General of Forests.

SIMLA, *9th June* 1898.

Iron Smelting with Charcoal in Salem District, Madras.

The industry, if it is to be developed, I mean if the manufacture of iron is to be conducted locally, will have to be confined to the Tirtamalai beds. From the statement appended to Mr. Brasier's office-note, No. 2445, dated 23rd October 1897, he now estimates that within a radius of 16 and 25 miles respectively, there will be 224,250 and 288,642 acres of reserved and proposed reserved forests available for the manufacture of charcoal.

These forests have been less indented upon ; the growth is, for the most part, denser than in the forests near the Kanjamalai beds, and there is little doubt the average annual increment is greater. Mr. Brasier estimates the latter at three-fourths of a ton per acre per annum. This estimate will probably be realized, but in the commencement it will be safer to assume half a ton per acre per annum as the average annual increment.

The area mentioned previously will have to be reduced to exclude rocky, bare and unworkable parts, and 25 per cent. may be accepted as a fair margin. This reduces the workable area to about 168,000 and 216,400 acres respectively. Further deductions are necessary. Parts of these forests contain valuable woods which would not be felled for charcoal. In addition, in places, provision may have to be made for local requirements. It has also to be borne in mind that fuel as well as charcoal will be required. I consider it will not be safe to accept more than 120,000 and 160,000 acres (according to the adoption of the 16 or 25 mile area) as available for charcoal manufacture.

The average annual yield would therefore be 60,000 and 80,000 tons of wood, or 12,000 and 16,000 tons of charcoal (allowing 5 tons of wood to yield 1 ton of charcoal).

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The system, generally, of working these forests would be coppice with retention of a percentage of the more valuable trees as standards, and it would not be advisable, until further experience has been gained, to adopt a shorter rotation than thirty years.

Mr. Brasier estimates the cost of the charcoal at Rs. 12-12-0 for the 16-mile areas:—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Cost of billetting, &c., 5 tons of wood at Rs. 1-8-0	7	8	0
Piling wood in kilns and general supervision ... (I see no reason to question these. Mr. Brasier has had great experience and is well acquainted with the local rates.)	0	8	0
Interest on outlay for rough cart-tracks ... ... (Assuming that the outturn is only 10,000 tons annually, this would allow Rs. 10,000 for roads).	1	0	0
Carriage of 1 ton an average distance of 8 miles, Rs. 1-12-0 ... ... (This is a doubtful factor and depends upon the position of the furnaces. I would increase Mr. Brasier's rate by As. 8 to allow for increased distances).	2	4	0
Seigniorage ... ... (Mr. Brasier's estimate is, I consider, too low. Annas 8 per ton of wood or Rs. 2-8-0 per ton of charcoal is not a high seigniorage).	2	8	0
Sundries (loading and unloading charcoal) ...	0	8	0
Cost of general supervision	0	8	0
Total cost per ton of charcoal ...	14	12	0

One point to be noticed is the transfer of the work to the Tirtamalai beds entails carriage to the railway, some 14 miles.

(*Report by E. P. Popert, Conservator of Forests.*)

Memorandum on the season for Cutting back for Coppice.

In one of his diaries for May 1893, Mr. Muttannah after examining the felled coupes in the Piploo forests, wrote as follows:—"None of last year's shoots are vigorous and healthy, although the soil is extremely rich and coppicing operations carried out here some 18 or 20 years ago, have resulted in splendid shoots. Could this be due to the late time of the year in which the trees were cut? In Chandgarh Range, too, I noticed that an area cut over in May last has similarly produced miserable shoots, while in the adjoining

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Malguzari they are four times more vigorous. These latter were cut earlier. * * * If the poor results observed this year in Kormal are due to the season of cutting, it is clearly necessary to complete our coppicing operations by the end of April, *i.e.*, just before vegetative activity begins."

2. The preceding remarks were circulated among other Divisional Officers, who were asked to communicate their respective experiences on this—for these Provinces particularly—important subject.

3. Of the seven officers thus addressed, three, *viz.*, those in charge of Mandla, Saugor and Betul, have replied that they have made no special observations, though in Saugor it was noticed that in the coupes of 1893-94 the coppice reproduction, where the fellings had been made early in the season was better, than that where the fellings had been late.

4. The Divisional Forest Officers of Damoh and Jubbulpore say nothing definite. The former states that he has "noticed differences in the vigour of shoots on stools cut back at different periods," but that in Nimar he saw similar differences in one and the same coupe, which had been all cut over within a period of a month. In this latter case these differences in growth were obviously due to differences of soil and situation and to the individuality of the plants.

The Divisional Forest Officer of Jubbulpore thinks that Mr. Muttannah's observations "are probably correct." At the same time he refers to a previous letter in which he stated that the coppice shoots in blocks 10 and 11 of the Murwara Range were all poor, although one portion of the area was cut over during the rains of 1896 (August—October), and the other in the subsequent dry season, right up to the end of April 1897. I have examined these blocks closely myself. The shoots in the portion coppiced during the rainy season are obviously of more than one season's growth ; nevertheless they compare very unfavourably with the one-season shoots of the other portion, thus proving conclusively, if the facts of vegetable physiology were not admitted, that the old method of cutting back in the rainy season was wrong, and that I was completely justified in stopping it altogether. The absolutely languishing growth of the shoots resulting from the dry-season coppicing operations, is due entirely to the wretched quality of the original parent crop and the great poverty of the soil.

5. The Narsinghpur Divisional Forest Officer states that in areas coppiced not later than April the shoots were healthy and vigorous, while the stools in areas coppiced after April "have produced miserable shoots."

6. The Divisional Forest Officer of Hoshangabad "thinks there can be no doubt that operations carried out in April

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give the best results," and he gives some figures in support of his belief. In a five acre plot cut over in October 1896, the average lengths of the shoots were—Teak 7 feet, *Terminalia tomentosa* 5 feet, and *Diospyros melanoxylon* 2½ feet; whereas in another five acre plot (whether contiguous and similarly situated or not is not stated), which was cut over in March 1897, the average lengths of the shoots of the same three species were respectively 8, 5½, and 4½ feet.

7. It is obvious from what precedes, that we do not as yet possess any statistics to be able to say *for certain* what month for coppicing gives the best results; but there is a general consensus of opinion, that April is the most favourable time. This is, however, only what might have been expected; for, as is well known, the period of vegetative activity for most of our principal or most widely-spread species, sets in at the end of April or in the early part of May. Nevertheless, we ought not to rest satisfied until we have collected a sufficient mass of reliable data on which to base a final conclusion. Divisional Officers should hence establish numerous sets of seven ¼-acre contiguous plots each, these seven plots being cut over successively on 15th November, 15th December, 15th January, 15th February, 15th March, 15th April and 15th May. Each set of plots should represent a different type of forest or different type of soil. The average height of the shoots of the several species should be ascertained annually for 10 years on the 1st January, when all growth will have ceased, and the figures thus obtained be recorded all together in a special-bound register in the annexed form. The measurements will be taken only by officers of the Department or by subordinates who have been professionally educated at Dehra Dun. After the tenth year of the experiment, it will be for the officers then administering the Department to decide whether the data collected are sufficient, or whether the experiment should be continued.

8. The figures obtained in the experiments here ordered, will furnish trustworthy data regarding many other important points, such as the best soils for growing coppice, the degree of adaptability of the several species for the coppice method of treatment, the volume increment in coppice, and so on.

E. E. FERNANDEZ,

Offg. Conservator of Forests,

Northern Circle, Central Provinces.

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IV.—REVIEWS.

The Pests and Blights of the Tea Plant.

This latest monument of Dr. Watt's labour and research * is of great interest to tea planters, for it is not only a scientific description of the many and various evils affecting tea, but also a practical discussion of the best means of warding them off. The book took its origin in a journey undertaken for the purpose of studying the matter and of reporting on the use of an infusion of the leaves of *Adhatoda Vasica* as an insecticide. On the latter point Dr. Watt finds that syringing is of service in checking the first attack of some pests, but that on a large scale it is impracticable.

On the subject of tea fertilisers, due prominence is given to the effect of Symbiosis in making atmospheric nitrogen available to the roots. The Leguminosæ are divided into three subdivisions, Papilionaceæ, Mimoseæ and Caesalpinieæ, according as roughly, the flower resembles the Pea, or the Babul, or is irregular like the *Gulmohr*. The two former of these subdivisions alone are known to possess the root-nodules which are the result and visible evidence of Symbiosis. A few other trees, such as Alder and *Elæagnus Hortensis* possess the same power. As Symbiosis involves the work of a Microbe or Bacterium, a gelatine cultivation or vaccine has been made for the purpose of propagating it. This is called Nitragin, and has only to be diluted and mixed with the soil. Unfortunately for its utility in this country, it has to be kept in the dark and at temperature not above that of the human body. The natural method of inoculating a poor soil would be to scatter over it a considerable quantity of soil known to be rich in the Bacteria, or to flood it with water drained from such soil. Dr. Watt's method is to divide a 500 acre estate into 5 or 10 plots, each in turn to be sown with *Phaseolus aconitifolius*, or other Leguminous crop; after the legume is ripe, the green stems are hoed in, and left till complete decomposition has taken place. The soil will then be highly charged with Bacteria, and by scattering it in handsful all over the estate the soil becomes inoculated. Tea produces no nodules but it certainly benefits by the presence of plants that do. The favorite trees generally grown as tea protectors are "sau" *Albizzia stipulata*, and "Sissoo," *Dalbergia Sissoo*. Dr. Watt

* The pests and blights of the tea plant by Dr. G. Watt, C. I. E., etc., Superintendent, Government Printing, Calcutta, 1898.

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protests that a good deal of harm is done by excessive hoeing. He thinks that weeds are not always harmful, and suggests that a lot of good might be done by ridding estates of useless Compositæ, &c., and replacing them by Leguminous weeds, which could be hoed in with great profit. The practice of burying prunings meets with strong condemnation, as the surest way of propagating blight and many other pests that ought to be burnt once.

Some idea of the ravages of these pests may be formed from the fact that the "caterpillar," *Andraca bipunctata*, belonging to the Bombycidæ, and sometimes called the "brown" or "bunch" caterpillar, costs an estate Rs. 1,500 in six months for the labour of coolies who collected no less that 69½ maunds. In another case 8 to 10 maunds have been collected daily. Another hairy caterpillar, probably belonging to the Arctiidæ, furnished a daily yield of 50 maunds, without making any visible impression on the stock. The Psychidæ, Bag-worms and Faggot-worms, are not very dangerous if a sharp eye is kept on them, and any tendency to multiply nipped in the bud. But they are rather insidious, as a few apparently old abandoned grub-cases may suddenly burst forth into crowds of hungry little caterpillars, and the bite of some of them is supposed to act like a poison on the tea plant. The most curious of this curious family is perhaps the limpet caterpillar, *Acanthopsyche Reidi*, which is about and inch long, in shape like a cow's horn with a flat sucker attached over the open end. It puts the sucker down on to a leaf, and sucks out a spot every 5 minutes. When the leaves are gone the bark is attacked. There may be a score or more on every leaf, so that the unfortunate tea bush appears to have developed a formidable crop of thorns. *psyche assamica* is a similar species, of tendencies as bad or worse. The Cossidæ are represented among the pests by *Zeuzera Coffeæ*. the red Borer. The female moth has a long hard ovipositor with which she deposits eggs in the crevices of the bark. The young caterpillar gnaws into the small shoots and works down into the roots, eating out the pith and surrounding wood. The Limacodidæ have the genera *Thosea*, *Parasa*, and *Belippa*, with caterpillars protected by a formidable 'chevaux de frise' of stinging hairs or spikes. The Lymantridæ are also hairy stinging caterpillars, and utilise their cast-off coat to protect the cocoon. Both these families are noxious, not only by eating the plant, but by sometimes even laming the coolies. The tea Noctuidæ, like the bunch caterpillar, feed at night, but the former grub hides underground in the day time, preferably in nursery beds whence it can sally out, cut off the tops and branches of a dozen seedlings, which it only eats the succulent bases of, and retire to its burrow, leaving the clean-cut twigs only, as evidence of its work. It must be sought carefully, an inch below the surface, and sometimes puts up a name-plate in the shape of a leaf half drawn down a hole. The Cocoon is a

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ball of earth. One way of catching the pest is to make conical holes with smooth sides, by rotating a pointed post in the soil. Into these they fall and fail to get out. The leaf-rollers and leaf-tiers are loopers belonging to the genera Tortricidæ and Tineidæ. Generally, an egg is laid on the underside of a leaf, the grub emerging, first burrows, in a sinuous course between the upper and lower skins. It then emerges and proceeds to roll the leaf more or less, in accordance with the habits of the species. The Sandwich caterpillar is a disagreeable creature. It simply makes a flat sandwich of several leaves, eats out the middle, leaves its droppings inside, and goes off to make another sandwich while the old one rots. The Chrysalis is unusually agile, being able to jump. The life-hisory of *Helopeltis Theivora*, called tea-bug, blight, green fly or as Dr. Watt calls it, tea mosquito, a creature of the Rhynchota class, and the most serious of all the tea pests, is of exceeding interest, but too long to extract.

The Coleoptera are not very numerous. First come the Melolonthidae, with the white grub, or larva of the Cockchafer, *Lachnosterna impressa* which lives on roots. Next the orange beetle, *Diapromorpha melanopus*, of which 20,000 have been caught in a day, and 300 by one man in an hour; also the green beetle, *Astycus chrysochlorus*, and other defoliators. Finally the wood-borers, *Xyleborus fornicatus*, *Curculio tanymecus*, perhaps *Crioceris impressa* and *Oides bipunctata*, and probably at least one longicorn.

On the question whether white ants do, or do not, attack living plants, there are various opinions. The truth seems to be that the common kind does not attack perfectly healthy and sound ones, but if an otherwise vigorous tree has been pruned, or had its armour of bark injured so that dead wood is formed the termite will eat the dead, and cause the death to spread, following it up till the tree is a ruin. But there are other species of white ant that will attack and kill the healthiest of seedlings.

The questions of pruning, of watering, of drainage, of culture, of seed production, of growth and nutrition, of vegetable foes, &c., are well discussed, and altogether, the book is one that cannot fail to be of interest and service to every planter, and to many who are not planters.

F. GLEADOW.

Report of the Missouri Botanic Garden, U. S. A., for 1892.

We have received this finely-got-up and handsome book from the Director, Mr. William Trelease. The garden is situated

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at St. Louis and this is its third Annual Report. The Report itself only occupies 20 pages and records how the garden owes everything to the will of a late Missouri citizen, Mr. Shaw, who apparently not only gave the site and buildings, but left a considerable endowment. Among other things stipulated in Mr. Shaw's will is an 'Annual Flower Sermon,' and that for 1892 is printed in the Volume before us, the preacher being the Revd. M. Schuyler and the text, 1st Kings, IV. 33 "and 'he spake of trees from the Cedar that is in Lebanon, even unto 'the Hyssop that springeth out of the wall." The sermon was a good one and we read it with much interest. In it is a story told of Canon Kingsley that when once on tour in America he visited St. Louis and among other sights, the Botanic Garden. Before he left he told Mr. Schuyler that he had "never seen anything 'in any part of the world that compares with the rarity and 'variety of the collection," except in Kew Gardens.

But the chief papers in this Report are the most valuable and interesting contributions at once to Botany and Entomology by Dr. C. V. Riley and the Director on the Yucca moth and Yucca pollination.' The Director gives a full account of the different species of Yucca, with beautiful photo-plates of most of the species, and Dr. Riley gives a detailed description of the enemies, mostly small moths of the genus *Pronuba*, with excellent plates, showing in detail the method by which the insect ensures that its eggs shall be properly accommodated in the Yucca fruit. We are much obliged to Mr. Trelease for his beautiful work, which will be a valued addition to the Forest School Library.

Report of the Department of Land Record and Agriculture, C. P.,

FOR THE YEAR 1896-97.

There is nothing particular in this Report except the following para, which we extract as possibly of interest to our readers

Surely, in the case of lands like Telinkheri all that is wanted is *rest*. If the C. P. Agricultural Department would make up their minds to forego not only the grazing but the grass and all other produce for ten years, possibly even for five, and to protect from trespass by men and cattle and from fire, we have not the smallest doubt that they would succeed in obtaining a fair jungle growth. When that is assured, it will be quite time enough to begin planting. Plantings and sowings on bare, dry, rocky hills, exposed to a burning sun. and with possibly cattle to graze down each seedling as it appears, only result in much

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money being expended with no result. The first thing to do is to get some surface soil and small vegetation and that will be easily obtained with *rest* only.

"Experiments in tussar cultivation were continued in Chanda 'under the supervision of of the Forest Department: 1,202 acres 'were given out for this purpose at a rental of Rs. 300-8-0 as 'compared with 525 acres in the previous year, which affords 'some ground for supposing that the Dhimars have succeeded 'in making their gardens pay and that the industry is improving.

'There is nothing of interest to note about these reserves in 'the three districts of the Chhattisgarh Division. Indeed, the 'Raipur and Bilaspur reports are quite silent on the subject. 'The Telinkheri reserve pays its way by the sale of its grass to 'the Experimental Farm, the Maharaj Bagh, and by public 'auction. The value of the produce was Rs. 410, and as Rs. 140 'represents the cost of establishment, the net profits are Rs. 270. 'All planting operations on this reserve are carried out by the 'Farm establishment during periods of leisure, and no extra ex- 'penditure is thereby entailed. No great progress has been 'made in arborising this barren hill, and it is questionable whe- 'ther without irrigation much success will be attainable. But 'the experience of the past few years shows that *khair* (*Acacia 'catechu*) will in course of time establish itself. When once 'these trees have attained a sufficient height to afford shade, 'other seedlings may, with this assistance, survive the rigour of 'a hot-weather sun. Even prickly pear finds difficulties in 'surviving. I have not yet found a suitable site for a well from 'which to irrigate a portion of the reserve, but this matter is 'engaging Mr. Joshi's attention. There seems no reason to doubt 'that with irrigation most trees can be established on this hill 'for the arboricultural operations conducted by the Superinten- 'dent of the Maharaj Bagh in the Government House compound, 'where the soil and other conditions are exactly similar, have 'hitherto met with success."

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QURIES.

Report on the Cultivation of the Carob or Locust-bean Tree.

In the course of last spring a well-known gentleman from South Africa made enquiries at this Consulate concerning the cultivation of the carob or locust-bean tree and the possibilities of

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its introduction into the Cape Colony. The carob is a tree, the fruit of which consists of a long pod which not only forms excellent horse-food but is very largely eaten by human beings, especially children, on account of its sweetness. The pods contain very hard beans which are useful only for seed, as horses leave them in their mangers, and if by chance they swallow them, it is found that they do not digest them. The tree bears, moreover, thick dark ever-green foliage which gives a cool and grateful shade. It grows in many places in the Mediterranean where nothing else will grow, notably on the arid hills of Malta, and it seems certain that in the endless varieties of soil and climate to be met with in the Cape Colony there must be many districts where it would grow freely. The successful result of such an experiment would be simply invaluable to the colony if merely as a supply for horse-food, for one of the greatest difficulties in travelling at the Cape is to feed one's horses, the price of forage in some districts being extremely high, and the supply often distressingly short. Forage, moreover, as it consists of oats with their straw, is not readily portable, but carobs enough for a pair of horses for a day can be carried in a small bag. The carob in Italy grows alongside the oranges and lemons, and there can be no reason why it should not grow with the magnificent orange trees of Wellington, and become as superior to the carob of Italy as the Cape orange tree is superior to its Italian prototype. In places like Graaf-Reinet, and Aliwal North, the success of the experiment seems absolutely certain, while, judging from the way the tree prospers on the dry stone of Malta, where it grows with apparently no soil to help it, there is good hope that it might take kindly to the "Kopjes" near Colesberg, the bush veldt of the Western coast, the lower slopes of Drakenfelds, or among the trees of the Knysna forest. The writer being well acquainted with the Cape Colony has had much pleasure in investigating the matter thoroughly, and, after lengthened consultation with practical arboriculturists, the following *modus operandi* has been decided upon. First, a sufficient quantity of seed will be sent out to grow a number of seedlings in different parts of the colony. These seeds will produce carobasters, which will not have a fruit worthy of the name till they are grafted. The strongest seedlings may be grafted in their third year, but it is of no use to graft until the plant is strong and well grown, which may not be till it is five or even seven years old.

A number of plants in pots will be grafted here next spring, re-potted in larger pots with plenty of clay, and when the grafts have taken well, the trees will be packed, the clay well soaked in water, and it is confidently hoped that they will bear the journey satisfactorily. They will be sent from here in the month of February, and will probably travel viâ England, which seems climatically preferable to the East Coast route by German steamer to Durban viâ Zanzibar. If the coincidence of the steamers can be secured they may reach Cape Town within a month of their

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despatch from here, or even less, but if not, we have no doubt that the steamship company will see that the roots are kept carefully wetted while the trees are in bond at the port of origin. It is with the object of keeping the roots wet that they are now being repotted in stiff clay, a soil which is in itself favourable to the growth of the tree.

Having thus given a general sketch of the scheme, it is necessary for its success to enter into minute detail as to the method to be employed in the cultivation of the trees. We will first take the plants to be exported two years hence, because these are ultimately the most important part of the subject. If they should succeed, the acclimatization of the tree at the Cape is assured; if they fail, the seedlings will be comparatively valueless for want of grafts. It is the fixed opinion of people here who have studied the subject closely, that there would be no chance of grafts sent out arriving in a condition to be of any value whatever, so that it becomes absolutely necessary to send out the plants themselves; besides, when the plants at the Cape were ready to be grafted, our grafts would be out of season here. We have already secured some excellent plants, from each of which grafts should be available. It does not seem possible to secure plants already grafted, for the reason that they are not usually grafted in pots, the operation being performed after they are planted out and have got a good hold on the soil which is to be their permanent home. We cannot graft these plants till May, 1898. nor can we be sure of the success of the operation till May, 1899, when the plants will be sent out. The carob is a tree which cannot be transplanted on account of its tap-root, so that once planted it must remain where it is; it is therefore very essential to plant it in the right place to begin with. In the case of our plants it will be necessary to top them and to cut off every leaf, in order that the sap may not be exhausted by the foliage when it begins to rise. We shall consequently export mere skeletons to the colony, and here again we have another difficulty to contend with, namely, the change of season. The plants will leave here at the end of our winter, and will arrive at Cape Town at the beginning of the South African winter. They will thus have a great strain put upon their nature, and great care will have to be taken of them to enable them to overcome it. This care they will certainly have at the hands of the managers of the Botanical Gardens in the colony, so that this is one of the least of our anxieties. The details in this report would therefore be unnecessary, but for the fact that as the experiment will be tried on an important scale, and many of the plants will fall under the care of less capable hands, it is advisable to give very clear instructions. On arrival at their destination the plants must be carefully potted in garden mould, to which a little

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old farmyard manure should be added, and the pots must be moved from time to time to prevent the plants striking a tap-root through the hole at the bottom of the pot into the soil, in which case they will certainly perish. They will not require very much water, in fact the climate of South Africa so much resembles that of Naples that, were it not for the clay which we must send with them, the plants would scarcely require water at all in the Cape winter. If, however, this clay gets hardened it may kill the rootlets which by that time will have spread into it, and give the tree a worse chance, so that the clay must be kept moist. It may be desired to plant the trees out at once, but this should not be done in windy weather, and on the whole it will be safer to pot them, at all events for a few months, till they can recover from their journey.

With regard to the seedlings, they should be sown in pots with proper drainage, and in garden mould, with a slight sprinkling of old, short, farmyard manure. The greatest care must be taken to move the pots often enough to prevent a tap-root being struck through the pot into the ground beneath. Experiments may safely be made by sowing seeds in the spots where they are intended to remain, and grafting them when the plants come to maturity, but this should be done in enclosed gardens or places where the plants can be guaranteed from being choked by weeds, nibbled by sheep or game, or otherwise harassed in their early years. The carob grows freely in dry soils, but, economically speaking, it has been found preferable to raise them in pots. The seeds will be sent out in the pods, as this has proved to be the best method for their preservation. It is desirable to remove the beans from the pods, and soak the beans for four days before sowing them ; the seed thus gets softened, and germinates rapidly. At Naples the seeds are sown in February and March, but they are apt to sprout very unequally. The majority grow freely and well, but some come up as late as October, and then generally develop weak plants. The strongest seedlings may be potted at the end of the first year, or even as early as November ; the weaker ones at the close of the second. They must be kept in pots till they are finally planted, as they will not bear transplanting, and windy weather should be avoided for these operations. The experiments conducted here show that it takes a minimum of four years and a maximum of seven to produce a plant. A strong plant may be planted out in safety in five years, but much depends on the skilful care of the seedlings in the nursery. Each plant brought to maturity in this country is calculated to cost 8*d*., and it has been found by experiments that it is cheaper in the long run to grow the plants in the nursery than to sow them in the open ground. They are not particular as to soil, and grow freely in clay, if not too wet, in sandy soils, and in the clefts of rocks, where of course holes of about a cubic yard must be dug for

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them and filled up with soil, drainage being provided in the ordinary way. It is usually necessary to build a rampart of stones in the shape of a crescent on the lower side of the hole to prevent the soil from being washed away. On "Kopjes" and hill sides, the trees must be planted on such spots as offer a position, unless the hill has soil enough to be terraced, but in open arable land they should be planted in rows from 12 to 15 yards apart. The intervening ground can be used for garden crops, but these must not be grown within four feet of the young trees, although the ground round the trees may advantageously be dug over when the rest is prepared for cropping. Exhausting crops, such as corn and mealies, must not be grown, but cabbages and garden produce generally will do no harm.

It is better to let the plants obtain a strong growth before attempting to graft them, the third year being about as early as it is prudent to do it. If a plant is very full of leaf it is desirable to leave it alone and not to graft it at all, for a reason which will appear below, and also because being leafy it may be taken to be a good variety. The season for grafting here is from the middle of May to the end of June, the grafter being careful to see that the bark opens easily. The best plan is to graft on the boughs and not on the stem, leaving the smaller boughs to utilise the winter deposit of sap, which may otherwise prove injurious to the grafts. These boughs can be cut off in the following year. Then carob can also be satisfactorily budded, or grafted by sawing off the trunk and cleaving it. In windy situations it will be necessary to bind canes to the grafted boughs to stiffen them, and to prevent the grafts from moving. The best two varieties of carob are both called here the "Honey bag"; one bears a long narrow pod, the other a short wide one.

The object of leaving a fair sprinkling (say 25 per cent.) of ungrafted trees in a grove is the following. The grafted tree produces almost exclusively female flowers, the ungrafted tree males. Unless these flowers are in due proportion there can be no crop; and in fact this was the primary cause of the failure of a carob grove in Sicily, a cause which was discovered and remedied by Professor Bianca. In planting these trees on ordinary arable land, great inequality will often be found in the plants, which arises from the fact that the carob cannot support water. Hence, where water accumulates in the subsoil the tree will not grow, whereas, where the water drains away, it will grow freely, and for this reason a hill side is the best situation for a grove.

Some years ago the Italian Alpine Club agreed that it would be greatly to the advantage of South Italy, and would add materially to the attractions of the mountain scenery, if the Apennines, which are now for the most part quite bare, could be made to grow trees such as there is every reason to believe that they did in more ancient times. They determined to con-

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sult Signor Savastano, the professor of aboriculture in the school of agriculture at Portici near Naples, who gave it as his opinion that the mountains where the lentisk and the myrtle grow freely enough could be utilised to produce the more remunerative carob. To the obvious advantage of re-afforesting the mountains, and thus adding to the rainfall, would be added the production of a valuable crop where nothing saleable had grown before.

The great carob-growing districts of South Italy are in the Bari region on the Adriatic coast, and quantities are exported annually to Russia and central Europe from Brindisi and the other ports along the coast. Though the tree may be seen in almost any garden here, and is not uncommonly found on the mountains, the only person who has made a hobby of its cultivation is the Prince of Belmonte, who has large properties in the province of Salerno not far from the ruins of Paestum. Besides planting several trees in his shrubbery, the Prince has a long avenue of them leading up to his house, which is particularly interesting, and is, we believe, the only avenue of its kind. The trees are planted 7 metres apart, and the largest of them has a trunk of 85 centimetres (about 2 feet 9 inches) in circumference. This tree is 18 years old, and its top is from 6 to 7 metres in diameter, and 4 or 5 in height. In common with the other trees of the avenue the fruit is of the best description, and each tree may be taken to yield annually 50 chilos, or say 120 lbs. of fruit, worth here about 6 shillings. This may be spoken of as the ornamental part of the work, while the plantations of Licosa and Tresina are more on the scale of a commercial enterprise. They are both germane to our present purpose, as they show in what different circumstances the carob will grow and flourish. The Licosa grove is in a plain by the seaside, and the difference of the trees is very remarkable, some of them growing with great vigour, others not flourishing at all. The reason of this must be the existence of land-springs beneath the surface with which the weaker trees come into contact, and by which their growth is checked. There is no other apparent reason, and as the grove consists of about 1,500 trees there is scope for observation. The site is very much exposed to the wind, and in the first attempts at forming the grove, as many as 70 per cent. of the plants were lost. There were other causes too, which led up to this heavy loss. First, the whole thing being an experiment, they did not know at what period and in what way it was best to graft the trees, and also the grafters had not anything like the skill which they have since acquired.

The grove at Tresina is planted in altogether different conditions. Here we have a hilly country fully 1,000 feet above the sea, and here the outside loss of plants has been 20 per cent. which is not more than occurs in the planting of ordinary forest trees. The plantation consisted originally of 7,000 trees, but has been largely increased year by year, and

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the Prince expresses every confidence that in a few years' time he will clothe the barren slopes with a mantle of luxuriant green. Professor Savastano asks very pertinently why, if these results can be obtained at Tresina they should not be obtained elsewhere, and thousands of barren acres of Italian mountains be made useful and productive. And in fact, since he wrote upon the matter, the spread of this cultivation has been steady and continuous. We have shown pretty plainly that Prince Belmonte has attained success only by patient experiments extending over a considerable number of years. Commercially speaking he is abundantly satisfied with the results obtained, but he does not relax his efforts. He rears some 8,000 seedlings every year, and has a skilled staff to conduct all the necessary operations with the result that he grows a valuable crop on ground which before was absolutely unproductive; and if the landed proprietors of South Africa profit by his experience and are equally persevering, and the tree, as is anticipated, proceeds to grow like a weed, its introduction should form a mine of wealth to our industrious colonists. There is one important advantage that the carob has over other beans, namely, that it does not require threshing. In feeding horses it is usual to break the pod into two or three pieces and to put it in the nosebag or manger, mixed with bran.

(*E. Neville-Rolfe, H. B. M's. Consul at Naples*).

Willow for Bat-making.

The following interesting information about the willow is taken from the "The Bat of the Victorian Era," by Geo. G. Bussey & Co.

The only willow that produces timber suitable for best bats is the *Salix alba*, and, moreover, only those grown in East Anglia are eligible.

The other branch of the Salicaceæ, the poplar, whilst its timber has much in common with white willow, does not possess the necessary fibrous tenacity for bat-making and it is also heavier. Although we have made researches practically the wide world over, we have not been able to discover any timber other than the willow of East Anglia that possesses sufficient toughness, combined with the necessary lightness, to produce best bats.

The "sets" (as the shoots are called) are cut from healthy trees, either maidens or pollards. Pollard is a term applied to a tree from which the tops have been lopped off. Each set

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should be about 2 in. diameter, 6 to 10 ft. long, and as straight as possible. And here we may give a curious fact; the shoots must be of the close bark order if they are to grow good enough for "Demon Drivers." Open bark trees will not make "best" bats.

These "sets" are planted in rows about 12 ft. apart, along the banks of a stream or sides of a ditch. If placed in barren or unfertile land, where they cannot draw a plentiful supply of moisture, which is so necessary to the willow, their development will be slow, and the lines of growth, blurry and ill-defined. When, however, planted by the side of water which can percolate freely through the soil to the roots, their advance will be rapid, and the lines of growth distinct and well defined.

Formerly, willows were planted for no other purpose than to hold the banks of water-courses together, being selected because of their rapid growth. Landowners little thought that some 20 or 30 years later these despised trees would have a considerable intrinsic value, and bring a veritable harvest to the reaper. Had they realised this, we cannot believe they would have grudged the trivial expense of trimming the saplings to make the trees symmetrical and comely at maturity.

Cricketers have seen many beautiful blades disfigured by an ugly knot. This is the result of neglecting to cut off a twig when the tree was young, which might easily have been done with a penknife. The shoot sprouts from the side of the tree, when the trunk is say 6 inches in diameter. If it be not removed it continues to grow with the tree, which closes gradually around its base, and the consequence is that all the growth of the trunk from the 3 in. radius from the centre (the trunk having been 6 in. in diameter when the neglected shoot sprouted), is marred by a knot, curl, or twist.

Cricketers should, however, bear in mind that a blemish of this sort does not, unless it be near a corner, in any way shorten the life of a bat. A good piece of wood with a blemish is far preferable to a bad piece without one. Frequently a really good bat is placed on one side by a purchaser in favour of one with an appearance more to his fancy, but which will not, however, render him as much service as in all probability the rejected would have done.

The willow in the course of its growth is "heir to more ills" than most other timbers. It is a delicate sapling, much affected by its surroundings, and, consequently, requires more care and attention than it is necessary to bestow upon the sturdier British timbers.

A great source of injury to young trees which materially affects their future is the gnawing of the rind or bark by cattle. The bark is as necessary to a tree as the skin is to an animal, indeed more so, for it is in fact not only the tree's skin, but it is a source of its vitality, for wherever any bark is removed the sap cannot nourish that part and decay commences. The most

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effective and speedy way of killing trees is by "ring-barking," that is, removing a bark from the trunk. This prevents the sap rising beyond the ring, consequently the part above soon perishes for want of nourishment and the tree dies.

Splendid trunks, too, are frequently spoiled by a dead or broken limb. When a limb shows any sign of decay, or a portion of it is broken by a storm, it should be cut off squarely, in such a way that water cannot be deposited, for such a lodgment would cause rot to set in.

There may have been noticed a peculiar horizontal marking on the blades of some cricket bats. The appearance might be described as "stainy." We have heard it called a "knot," but we do not acquiesce in this definition. Our theory is that this strange marking is due to a small aperture, probably made by a worm or other reptile boring its way through the bark into the trunk, which in some way or other changes the condition of the wood. The general opinion is that water trickling through the aperture causes the peculiar marking. We have invariably found that when there is this "stainy" appearance there is also a small opening from the outside leading to the close proximity of the mark.

Let the cause of the marking be what it may, it is, in our own judgment, of some value to the blade. It considerably adds to the surface strength of that part of the blade where it is found. Some cricketers are chary about choosing a bat with this marking, but we think they act quite wrongly. How often have you known a bat break by reason of it? The finest blades are produced from timber having this "stainy mark." Inferior quality timber rarely possesses it.

A tree steadily growing, in good soil, under favourable conditions, will be in 20 years about 45 inches round the trunk. The sacrificial axe may now do its work, although we should advise the owner to let the tree grow for many years still.

The willow is quick to grow, but its period of existence is relatively short, natural decay setting in much earlier than is the case with the more hardy timber.

An oak at the age of 100 years may be in its prime, but there are very few willows of this growth without a large hollow space in the centre indicative of many years' decay.

The proper time for felling is during the winter, the sap then being down. Should the tree be taken down when the sap is up, it will dry in the trunk, which certainly deteriorates the timber.

For many years our Mr. Bussey personally purchased the willow from the landowners, the timber being brought direct to our London factory, but having foreseen for some years that good willow was becoming scarcer and scarcer, we determined that our patrons, at any rate, should not have cause to complain of the quality of the material used in the "Demon

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Driver," and we conceived that the best possible plan for us to adopt would be to purchase all the really A 1 timber we could discover. Now this plan necessitates large storage room, and although we have extensive yards at our London factory, we decided to erect timber mills in the very heart of the best willow growing district. As the result, we have our timber mill and yard, covering two acres, at Elmswell, Suffolk, which are under the charge of one of the most competent judges of willow living.

Having the necessary accommodation the next step was to stock it with willow. Our expert then commenced literally to search the country; and there is probably not an owner or tenant of rural property in East Anglia, but who knows us as buyers of good willows. The outcome of these efforts is that we have a holding of the finest timber without parallel in the history of the cricket trade, exceeding 1,000 tons. Even now we have no intention of relaxing our efforts; every tree we can find which we believe will produce good bats we shall buy.

At Elmswell, Messrs Bussey have their own plantation of saplings, from which, in years to come, they hope the sons of our present readers will possess bats as good as the "Demon Drivers" of this year of Jubilee.

(*Timber Trades Journal*).

The Forest Department in Madagascar.

The Official Journal of Madagascar of the 15th January last, publishes an important circular of the Governor-General relative to the preservation of the forests of the colony. Circle Commandants are required to assist in the execution of Forest works relating to, nurseries, fire-protection, clearings, fellings, etc., and in places where the forest staff is insufficient, which is generally the case.

"No fellings are to be carried out without previous sanction and when the fall is to consist of wood at less than one metre in girth, the Forest Department must first be consulted for such material constitutes the forests of the future. The Natives must gradually be accustomed to respect the property of others and must no longer be allowed to consider as their own special property the forest domain, the limits of which are every year receding before the action of fire and the axe."

One recognizes in these measures the administrative spirit of General Gallieni, and the zeal of the Chief Forest Officer, M. Girod-Genet, who has an excellent article in the 'Journal' of the 22nd February, on reafforestation in Emyrne where wood is very scarce.—*Revue des Eaux and Forêts.*

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Epiceine.

The following short account of Epiceine is taken from the '*Revue des Eaux et Forêts*' for the 15th May.

Epiceine is a condensed extract from the *Abies excelsa*. It is obtained by distillation under a pressure of four atmospheres from freshly cut branches of Spruce Fir. This preparation is an ideal balsamic drug. It contains all the extracts obtained from the Silver Fir which have been so strongly recommended in diseases of the respiratory organs and the urinary ducts.

Epiceine contains, in the same proportion in which they are found in the Spruce, tars, turpentines, essential oils, acetate of bornyl, phenol and similar products. The method of extraction based on the employment of the fresh plant explains the superiority of Epiceine over all similar preparations. Its value in the treatment of all affections of the respiratory organs is such as to have made it an accepted remedy in cases of coughs, bronchitis, inflammation, acute or chronic, of the nose, windpipe and lungs.

It appears not altogether improbable that the Forest Guards of the higher plateaux of the Jura who chew Spruce resin throughout their days' work, may be the real discoverers of Epiceine which is strongly recommended.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

August 4th, 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—Prices in London have moved a point up during July, but speaking generally there is no change of values to be noted. The deliveries for the seven months of this year from the docks in London amount to 11,679 loads, as compared with 10 713 loads for that period of 1897. For July the comparison is 912 loads this year, as against 1,356 loads last year, The outlook continues firmly in favour of sellers.

ROSEWOOD. EAST INDIA.—Continues in steady demand, and prices are likely to remain firm, while shipments are moderate.

SATINWOOD. EAST INDIA.—Plain wood is quiet, but for finely-figured logs there is some enquiry.

EBONY. EAST INDIA.—The enquiry is limited to large, sound wood of good colour.

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Price Current.

Indian Teak, per	load ...	...	£ 10 5s.	to £ 15 5s.
Rosewood „	ton ...	...	£ 9	to £ 10
Satinwood „	foot (super).	...	5 *d.*	to 12 *d.*
Ebony „	ton ...	...	£ 6	to £ 8

Denny Mott and Dickson's Wood Market Report.

LONDON, 2ND AUGUST, 1898.

TEAK.—The landings in the London Docks last month consisted of 112 loads of logs and 449 loads of planks, as agains, 1,748 loads of logs and 581 loads of planks for the corresponding month of last year. The consumption for the month amonted to 1042 loads, as against 1,287 loads in July, 1897. Stocks in London Docks consist of :—

9,767	Loads of Logs,	as against	9,114	Loads at the same date last	year		
,255	„	Planks	„	2,152	„	„	„
20	„	Blocks	„	24	„	„	„
Total 13,042	Loads			11,290	Loads	„	„

The imports of logs are on a moderate scale, and the stock shows but a slight increase on last year's figures ; whilst planks mostly of inferior quality, continue to be be consigned to this market and show 50 per cent. increase in stock over last year's figures.

Cargo prices are progressively hardening owing to the large Continental demand, and the further Naval requirements which must result from the expansion of the shipbuilding programme of England and Russia, Foreign Rolling Stock orders are increasing because of cheap money ; and the confident expectation of the favorable outcome of negotiations for peace is restoring confidence to the promoters of Railway enterprise abroad. Prospects in the shipbuilding centres continue bright, and the comparatively light stocks are being firmly held in view of a good Autumn dem and on the resumption of work after the holidays.

Business during July has been marked by a holiday listlessness, but the volume of trade has been fairly satisfactory. Prospects of a good Autumn business are brightened by the confident expectation of the present peace negotiations between the United States and Spain terminating favourably.

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MARKET RATES OF PRODUCE.

Tropical Agriculturist, August, 1898.

Cardamoms	per	lb.	3s. 9d.	to	4s. 5d.
Croton Seeds	,,	cwt.	87s.	to	90s.
Cutch	,,	,,	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic, Madras	,,	,,	27s. 6d.	to	35s.
India rubber, Assam	,,	lb.	2s. 7d.	to	3s. 1½d.
,, Burma	,,	,,	2s. 3d.	to	3s. 1½d.
Myrabolams, Madras	,,	cwt.	5s.	to	5s. 3d.
,, Bombay	,,	,,	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
,, Jubbulpore	,,	,,	4s. 6d.	to	8s.
,, Bengal	,,	,,	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	,,	,,	8s.	to	10s. 6d.
Oil, Lemon Grass	,,	lb.	3½ d.	to	3⅝d.
Sandalwood, Logs	,,	ton	£30	to	£50.
,, Chips	,,	,,	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood	,,	,,	£4	to	£5.
Seed lac	,,	cwt.	60s.	to	70s.
Tamarinds	,,	,,	4s.	to	6s.

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THE

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A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

FORESTRY,

AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL.

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN

OCTOBER, 1898.

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THE
INDIAN FORESTER.

Vol. XXIV.] October, 1898. [No. 10.

Forest Schools and Model Forests in Scotland.

By Col. F. Bailey, r. e.

In 1881, M. Lucien Boppe (now Director of the French National Forest School), reported on the condition of our British woodlands after visiting them at the invitation of the India Office; and in 1896, Dr. Adam Schwappach, Professor of Forestry at Eberswalde, in Prussia, who came over to read a paper before the Royal Scottish Arboricultural Society, also recorded his opinions on the same subject. Both of these eminent experts of different schools of forestry, criticised us severely, the principal points noticed being the small extent of our woods as compared with the vast area of our uncultivated lands, our almost universal neglect to re-stock our woods by means of self-sown seed, and, above all, our practice of too early and excessive thinning, which results in the production of low, branchy and tapering stems, yielding a very insufficient crop of timber of inferior quality, as well as in the impoverishment of the soil.

Dr. Schlich, Professor of Forestry at the Indian College at Coopers Hill, and author of the Manual of Forestry, has repeatedly confirmed the above views. In the address on Forestry Education,[1] which he delivered to the Royal Scottish Arboricultural Society in January 1897, he said:—

"You are aware that the general drawback, from which 'forestry in this country labours, is the absence of a regular 'demand for home-grown timber. You also know that, until a 'comparatively recent date at any rate, most Government contracts 'for work of construction contained a clause to the effect that no 'home-grown timber would be allowed to be used. If we take 'these broad facts into consideration, it is easy to perceive that 'the explanation may be condensed into the following two state-'ments:—(1) The home-grown timber is, generally speaking, in-'ferior in quality to that imported from abroad; (2) it comes into

1 Transaction of the Society, Vol. XV. Part 2.

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'market at irregular intervals and in fluctuating quantities. Ex-'ceptions exist, but here only the average conditions can be 'considered. These drawbacks can be removed only by improved 'sylvicultural methods, and a systematic management of the 'forests."

Writing on the Timber Supply of the British Isles,[2] Dr. Schlich gives as one of two impediments to the afforestation of waste lands, "that a more complete knowledge of systematic 'forestry is required by those engaged in the formation and 'management of woods worked on economic or commercial prin-'ciples."

Causes of Existing Conditions.

Many reasons may be given why we have in the past exposed ourselves to criticism of the above nature. We possess within our own shores, vast supplies of coal and peat fuel, also of iron, which is largely used for purposes of construction, while our islands offer remarkable facilities for the importation of timber from abroad. Hence the want of a plentiful supply of wood from home sources has not yet been felt; and proprietors of woodlands, many of whom have in past years maintained their woods principally as game-coverts and to increase the beauty of their estates, have not, generally speaking, wished them to be managed on commercial principles, with a view to profit.

Our practice of keeping woods more scantily stocked than such principles would unquestionably indicate, is, no doubt, largely due to exigencies of sport; but it may also be traced to the open condition in which alone crops of such widely-grown and important species as oak and larch can maintain themselves, beyond a certain age, unless they are mixed with other species of a different nature. These are, no doubt, the principal causes of the sylvicultural practices objected to by our critics; and in the absence of schools of instruction, and of woods where the results of improved methods might be seen, our faulty system has frequently been regarded as the only one suited to the conditions of our soil and climate.

On this subject M. Boppe says:—

"It would certainly not be fair to hold the Scottish foresters 'responsible for the present regrettable state of affairs, for, though 'they have for the most part admitted the inefficiency of the present 'system, they are powerless to effect any improvement so long as 'the landowners and general public have not learnt to appreciate 'the manifold advantages to be derived from a regular and methodi-'cal management. They have to struggle against many adverse 'interests and hindrances, such as grazing and shooting interests, 'questions of routine, pecuniary exigencies, and the fancies of 'sportsmen from all parts of the world."

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2 Indian Forester, June 1897.

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This is undeniably true, the wood-managers and foresters having loyally and conscientiously carried out the policy of their employers.

Views held here on Continental Forestry.

In countries, such as France and Germany, where forests owned for centuries by the State, and managed on economic principles, cover vast areas, the sylvicultural systems pursued are based on the observation of facts, recorded throughout a long period of time by competent men of science specially trained to the work in schools maintained by the State. In those countries, correct views on systematic forestry are much more commonly held than they are here. With us, the subject is but little understood, and comparatively few people, even amongst those whose interests are the most affected, realise the degree in which forestry is truly a science. The recent publication in our language of scientific works on sylviculture has drawn considerable attention to the question of wood-management; and in 1895, a body of members of the Royal Scottish Arboricultural Society made a most instructive tour in the forests of Northern Germany; but it cannot be expected that the mere study of books, with rapid visits of this kind, useful as they are, can alone lead to a full comprehension of Continental methods, and to an adequate appreciation of the conditions under which one or other of them has been employed in a particular locality. Hence these methods and their application are sometimes imperfectly understood, and any suggestion that our woods might be treated under them, meets with objections, some of which at least would not be raised if a fuller knowledge of them prevailed. But there is no doubt that a conviction is rapidly gaining ground that all has not been quite right in the past; and a strong desire is now very generally evinced that practical proof should be given of the extent to which methods of treatment, successfully employed in other countries, are really applicable to our forests.

Reform is Necessary.

All doubts as to the sylvicultural methods most suited to the woods of our country should, long ago, have been set at rest by practical demonstration of what is here possible in the way of growing full crops of high-class timber under various conditions. We undoubtedly produce a limited quantity of timber of first-class dimensions and quality, but it is equally certain that our home-grown wood, especially pine and fir, is, for the most part, inferior in quality to that imported from abroad; and this is so far generally recognised, that home-grown produce, even of the best quality, is but little used in Government or in private works of construction. Indeed, until recently, the use of such timber

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for the erection of buildings under the Land Improvement Act, 1864, was not permitted without the special sanction of the Board of Agriculture; and even now it is thought necessary to prescribe that when thus used, it must be of suitable dimensions and be cut from trees that are sound and of proper age and size. Again, the Postmaster-General, having been recently requested to try home-grown Scots fir for use as telegraph posts, replied,—"The 'results . . . show that Scots fir is less strong than the Norway 'red fir in general use by the Department. It is, moreover, less 'straight and less free from large and rough knots. Apart from 'the question of the comparative merit of the Scots and Norwegian 'fir, the difficulty and delay experienced in obtaining even small 'parcels of Scots fir suitable for telegraph poles renders it 'necessary for the Department to resort to the Norwegian market 'in order to obtain adequate supplies." And miners are known to pay high rates for foreign pit wood in preference to using poles grown near the pit's mouth.

But, while our consumption of forest produce is steadily increasing, and Dr. Schlich has shown, (1) that the value of our yearly imports, which amounts to about £ 18,000,000, has risen by about £2,000,000 during the past eight years, he conclusively proves, in his exhaustive paper on the Timber supply of the British Empire, that the permanence of our supplies from a road is very far from being assured; and thus we may before long find ourselves face to face with a scarcity which must lead to an enhancement of the price of timber.

Again, the forest question has much greater importance in Scotland than in England; for the agricultural returns show that, out of a total area of mountain and heath land used for grazing, amounting in the United Kingdom to about 12½ millions of acres, nearly 9½ millions are in Scotland; while out of a total additional area of nearly 9 millions of acres of unused waste land and inland water, about 4½ millions are situated in Scotland. It is not known what proportion of these vast extents of country is suitable and available for planting, though land of the lowest degree of fertility is capable of producing a profitable crop of coniferous timber, but it may safely be assumed that the existing woods, plantations, and nurseries, which cover little more than 900,000 acres, might be increased to at least four or five times their present area, without including a single acre of ground good enough to grow an agricultural crop. And such extensions would no doubt for the most part take effect in the Highlands, the more remote and poorer part of the country, where the increase of wealth and prosperity accompanying the presence of woodlands is already very noticeable, and where many hundreds of thousands of acres might be rendered as productive under

1 "*Forestry Education*," "*Transactions of the Royal Scottish Arboricultural Society*," Vol. XV. Part 2.

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timber as much of the agricultural or pastoral land in England, which yields a nett income to its owners of not more than 5s. to 10s. per acre. We may, therefore, feel reasonably confident that the introduction of remunerative sylvicultural methods will lead to the area under forest crops being largely added to, and that we shall thus become less dependent, than we are at present, on supplies from foreign countries.

Why we require Model Forests.

There seems no reason to doubt that the owners of waste lands, which might be suitably and profitably afforested, would be much more willing to plant than they now are, if a practical object-lesson could be presented demonstrating the methods by which a fair return on their outlay could be assured; and the sooner such a demonstration can be provided, the better for them, and for the country at large, especially for the class to whom extension of the wooded area would afford additional employment.

We require a Model Forest then, first of all, that we may be in a position to offer to proprietors, their wood-managers and foresters, a practical proof that the principles of economic forestry, as taught and practised in France, Germany, and other countries, are equally suited to our islands. It is, of course, well understood that the application of these principles does not involve hard and fast methods of treatment; and that French and German foresters regulate important matters, such as the density of planting and the degree of thinning, in accordance with the conditions prevailing in the locality they are dealing with. We want to demonstrate what method of treatment, under our own conditions of soil and climate, would lead to results similar to those obtained in other countries where the principles of economic forestry have long been followed. Dr. Schlich, in his address on Forestry Education, says,—"We are justified in concluding 'that there is no reason why just as good timber, as that 'now imported from abroad, should not be grown in this country, 'provided improved sylvicultural treatment and a systematic 'working of the forests are introduced." This cannot be doubted. 'M. Boppe speaks of the "marvellous timber-producing proper-'ties" of our soil and climate, and the "wonderful aptitude 'of (our) soil to forest vegetation, favoured as it is by a 'regular climate and the constant humidity of the atmosphere." He found growing, both singly along the roadside, and collectively in the forests, "magnificent specimens of oak, maple, elm, 'ash, beech and lime, which, by the vigour of their growth and 'the rich colouring of their foliage, bore testimony to the favour-'able conditions of soil and climate under which they grew." Speaking of the Dunkeld woods, M. Boppe says, "From a 'forest point of view, the results obtained by these two species '(Scots fir and larch) are truly marvellous;" and he adds; "It

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'is, therefore, a matter of regret that nothing has yet been 'done to place forest management in Scotland on a sound 'economic basis." It appears unlikely that it ever will be placed upon a sound basis throughout the country until we have a Model Forest in which we can illustrate methods and point to results.

The Model Forest is also required for conducting experiments and researches, such as would enable our teachers of sylviculture to base their instruction on data obtained in this country, instead of relying on figures, the result of observations conducted elsewhere. Volumes I., II., and III., of Schlich's "Manual of Forestry" necessarily bristle with such figures; but, useful as they are, it is high time that we started records of our own, and work of this nature can only be done satisfactorily in a State forest, by men of special scientific training.

Again, we want a Model Forest as a field of practical instruction for students. Dr. Schlich writes,—"Something more 'is wanted than theoretical instruction. Instruction in the field 'must also be provided. There must be forests which are managed 'on the right lines, where students will find the theory of economic 'forestry practically illustrated." And M. Boppe expresses himself as follows: "The science of forestry is, however, a science of 'observation based upon facts which must be studied both from a 'practical and theoretical point of view. It is, therefore, absolutely 'necessary that a forest school should have, attached to it, a forest, 'which has for some time past been under scientific manage-'ment, serving, so to speak, as a natural laboratory for ex-'periments, and without which the best theoretical teaching in 'the world would be of no avail. This is especially the case in 'England, where the young men, by reason of their national 'character and their mode of education, are accustomed to pay 'more attention to facts than to theories; here the teacher 'of a technical profession, resting solely on theories, would com-'mand very few disciples. It is, therefore, a matter of regret that 'among all the forests visited by us in our travels, there is not 'a single one suitable for the teaching of sylviculture on that 'broad basis so essential when the pupils are called upon to 'supply it in all quarters of the globe. In England, as in Scot-'land, all the woodlands may be arranged in two categories—the 'one containing plantations too young, recently created by the 'hand of man; the other containing plantations too old, or too 'much overworked, to be useful for the purpose; nowhere 'did we see a high timber forest formed of really mature trees." Those who have for some time past endeavoured to carry on instruction in forestry without a practical training-ground of the kind above indicated, can best appreciate the want of it. The owners of Scottish woodlands have certainly most readily permitted teachers with parties of students to have access to their woods; and the benefit derived from such visits can hardly be

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exaggerated; but it will be readily understood that, in this country "forests which have for some time past been under scientific 'management" are rare, and that even the best managed private forest estates lack that continuity of aim and action which alone can fit them in every respect for educational uses.

Forest Schools.

To train for the superior staff of the French State Forest Service, officers who are to be charged with the administration of about 11,500 square miles of State and Communal forests, a National Forest School is maintained at Nancy, with a staff of thirteen professors and assistant professors, who teach sylviculture, working plans, geology, mineralogy, entomology, botany, forest law, political economy and forest statistics, surveying, forest engineering and agriculture. The school is accommodated in spacious buildings, embracing residences for the staff and students, halls of study, recreation rooms, museum, library and chemical laboratory; and an area of 7,500 acres of forest in the neighbourhood is under the control of the Director of the School as a field of practical instruction, as well as for purposes of experiment and research.

In the German Empire there are eight superior State Forest Schools equipped on a like scale; and in nearly all countries of the European continent, schools of a similar kind are maintained for the training of officers for the Government forest service. A considerable portion of the Windsor Crown Forest is managed, for purposes of practical instruction, by the professor of forestry at the Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill; while the Forest of Dean will, it is understood, shortly be brought under systematic management, and will thus also become available for instructional uses. But the students of the Forest Branch at Coopers Hill College still receive the principal part of their practical training in State Forests of France and Germany, which have been subjected to rational treatment for a long period of years.

Forests used as the main practical training-ground for students are always placed under the control of the Director of the school. Speaking of the area that should be provided for instructional purposes in this country, M. Boppe says:—

"This accessory forest must necessarily be incomplete at 'first, but would be perfected in time; but the essential point is 'that it should be placed under the absolute control of the 'officers of the school. This can only be done by choosing a 'State forest. If it should be considered desirable, also, in 'order to render the teaching more complete, the State ought 'to purchase or lease in Scotland, a forest suitable for the 'purpose." The chief reason for this is that if the estate were managed merely as an ordinary forest, it might not, and almost

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certainly would not, serve in the best possible way as a field for practical instruction. To meet the latter requirement, work must be carried on so as not only to furnish an object-lesson in economic forestry, but also to illustrate in the fullest manner the course of lectures given to the students; and on this account the work carried on in a school forest will always be of a more varied nature than that in an ordinary forest, and its details must be arranged, as far as possible, so that the course of theoretical instruction may run hand in hand with it. These conditions would not be fulfilled unless the Director of the School had control of the forest.

The Forest School in Edinburgh.

If we had a sufficiently large area of State Forests in Scotland, with a proportionately strong staff of Government wood-managers, a State Forest School, such as the above, would be a necessity; but existing circumstances hardly appear to warrant the immediate foundation of an independent school, at which, in addition to forestry proper, the necessary auxiliary subjects, such as botany, chemistry, geology and mineralogy, entomology, engineering, etc., must be taught by a special staff of instructors. Candidates for the Indian State Forest Service will continue to be trained at Coopers Hill; and although an independent forest school in Scotland would no doubt receive support from young men seeking Colonial appointments, the number of these and of students who might be expected, at the present time, to enter it with a view to employment in this country, would not be sufficient to provide funds for its maintenance. The only plan now feasible seems to be to teach forestry in some university or college, where instruction in subjects necessary to the complete understanding of the course is already obtainable: and this is what is now being done in Edinburgh. It is true that such an arrangement has many important drawbacks. First of all, it is not to be expected that, under it, the Model Forest, in which the practical part the course is given, will be situated in the immediate vicinity of the class rooms where the students assemble to hear lectures. And again, in a university or college, the auxiliary subjects are necessarily taught without that special reference to forestry which is so desirable, and which can only be secured at a special school. In such an institution students would be taught *forest* botany and *forest* entomology; geology and mineralogy would be treated with special reference to the formation of forest soil; chemistry in relation to the nutrition and growth of plants; and the engineering course would deal with simple surveying, timber measurement, the construction of forest roads, bridges and buildings, with saw mills, forest tramways, timber slides and other labour-saving means of moving timber, rather than with engineering in its general aspect.

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We are not yet in a position to attain these advantages.

In Edinburgh, at the present time, three courses of lectures on Forestry are given, viz :—

First.—That delivered daily, during the winter session, at the University, usually to a small number of students who are following other courses, and who, for the most part wish to qualify themselves as factors to estate managers. The class has been attended by a few sons of landed proprietors, a few men who contemplated seeking a career in the colonies (though it is not known that any of these have left the United Kingdom), and by others whose aim was to become farmers and who elected forestry as one of the alternative subjects prescribed for the degree of Science in Agriculture. In addition to class-room lectures, these students are given such practical instruction as is found possible in neighbouring woods, saw-mills, nurseries, timber-yards, creosoting works, etc., the owners of which have courteously made them welcome. The course of lectures on Forestry at the University was opened by Professor William Somerville in the autumn of 1889 ; and since then the number of enrolled students has been 107.

Second.—Weekly evening lectures delivered by the University Lecturer at the Royal Botanic Garden, to a class which during the past winter numbered thirty-one students, of whom sixteen were foresters and the remainder were gardeners. The curriculum embraces chemistry, physics, meteorology, geology, surveying, mensuration, entomology, botany, forestry and horticulture ; it extends over three years, during which time, about 40 lectures in forestry are given.

Third.—A course of lectures in forestry was commenced this year at the Heriot-Watt College—where during the winter session the University Lecturer addressed a class of thirty students, on one evening a week. The members of this class were for the most part clerks and law apprentices, who were qualifying for factorships with foresters, gardeners, nurserymen, and seedsmen ; and among their other subjects of study at the College may be mentioned botany, entomology, mensuration and book-keeping, agriculture, agricultural chemistry, building, land surveying, and geology. They were employed in the city and neighbourhood, and could not attend day-classes, nor follow courses of study elsewhere.

Such is the work now being carried on in Edinburgh, where, during the current year, sixty-four students attended courses in forestry given by the University Lecturer, and were, for the most part, also studying auxiliary subjects at the institutions where the lectures in forestry were given. The course at the University is fuller than the other two ; but its value would be very greatly enhanced if a Model Forest for practical instruction were available. Few of the students of this class have sought to follow the career of wood-managers ; but they have evidently considered

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that a knowledge of forestry would be useful to them in other occupations connected with land. It may, however, be reasonably hoped that, as proprietors come to realise the advantage of bringing their woods under a regular system of management, the prospects of wood-managers will improve, and that young men who may desire to follow this career will attend the University class as the best means of obtaining professional instruction available in Scotland at the present time. The establishment of an independent school of Forestry will, no doubt, follow sooner or later, as future developments may indicate; and when the time for this arrives, the Model Forests now asked for will have been for some years under preparation as a practical training ground. There can be no doubt that in existing circumstances the present classes meet a want. To men who have already been employed in woods, or who intend to become factors or foresters, an insight into the principles of economic forestry cannot fail to prove an advantage; and experience has shown that the foresters now in charge of Scottish woods take a most keen and intelligent interest in the subjects dealt with in the class-rooms, are quick to grasp new ideas, and eager to try changes in their accustomed methods.

It can hardly be doubted that the lectures given in Edinburgh during the past nine years have, amongst other influences—such as the Arboricultural Society's tour in Germany—had an effect on the opinions held by many persons in this country who are interested in forest management, and have had a share in removing the prejudice with which, until the last few years, innovations were generally regarded.

Location of the Model Forests.

At the present time, Edinburgh is the only place in Scotland where lectures on forestry are given; and there does not appear to be any immediate necessity for the establishment of lectureships at other centres. It is good policy to concentrate our efforts in one place, and to leave nothing undone to improve the facilities for teaching there, rather than to dissipate our strength in attempts to sustain the machinery of instruction in several places. Dr. Schlich entirely supports this view, for he says in his article on Forestry Education: "In my opinion, 'you would do better if you, at the start, were to concentrate 'operations, so as to make *one* definite scheme a reality, and 'that scheme should be to perfect the education of your future 'wood-managers, or under whatever title they appear upon the 'scene. In other words, I should advocate *one* centre of instruction, consisting of (1) theoretical instruction in connection with 'a university or agricultural college, where instruction in the 'auxiliary sciences is already provided; (2) woodlands where 'practical instruction can be imparted, because in forestry, theory

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'and practice must go hand in hand, As regards the first point,—'theoretical instruction.—a beginning has been made in this very 'city [Edinburgh] ... The arrangement needs only further 'development, and to be put on a proper footing, so as to bring the 'subject of forestry, as regards its importance, on a par with other 'branches of learning."

Edinburgh is not so far distant from any part of Scotland as to debar men living in the most remote counties from attending courses there; and in view of the fact that students, while attending the forestry classes, are either following other courses of study or are employed in the city, it is essential that the Model Forest should be situated within such a distance that they may be able to reach it and return on the same day, as they now do when visiting woods in the Lothians, Fife, and other places. It will not suffice to acquire bare land only, with a view to planting it, as this would involve waiting for a long series of years before anything but planting, sowing and the management of young crops could be practically dealt with. What we want is to obtain control of growing woods, or at any rate of areas which carry a large proportion of growing woods, of all ages, and of as many species as possible; and we should ultimately be able to deal with various kinds of soil, and various slopes, altitudes, and exposures in at least two different parts of the country.

Working Plan.

One of the first things to be done on acquiring an area to be converted into a Model Forest, would be to prepare for it a Working Plan, which wouldl ay down once for all the general lines of management to be followed, and would prescribe in some detail the work to be done during the first few years. Such a plan would be preceded by a survey of the growing stock on the ground, such as would enable the annual yield to be determined, and a programme of fellings would then be drawn up. Such a plan must form the basis of all systematic forest work. Without it, continuity of aim cannot be secured, or even hoped for, throughout the life of a generation of trees, which may exceed the working lives of several successive generations of foresters; neither can there be any security that the forest capital will not be drawn upon by fellings in excess of the annual production of wood.

The Manager.

To carry out the scheme in such a manner that the Model Forests may answer all the purposes above indicated, the services of a Manager of the highest professional attainments must be secured. On him will depend the success of an undertaking which it is confidently believed will have far-reaching effects on the manage-

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ment of woodlands in this country, and lead to an important increase of the area. He must be thoroughly versed in the theory and practice of economic forestry, and it is important that he should not be a mere student but should have had considerable experience in practical work. He must be familiar with the French and German languages, so that he may keep himself abreast of the most recent developments of continental forestry. He must undertake the researches to be carried out in the Model Forests, and be familiar with the results obtained by other workers. It will be his duty to prepare working plans, and to inaugurate a system of records which will bring out clearly the results of his system of management, and enable the fullest possible use to be made of them by the proprietors and foresters of the country. Such relations must be established between him and the lecturer, or head of the forest school, at Edinburgh, as may ensure the forests being made to answer instructional requirements in the fullest manner.

Board of Visitors

A board of visitors should be appointed, who would report direct to the Board of Agriculture any suggestions that they might, from time to time, desire to make regarding matters affecting the management and use of the Model Forests.

Estimates and Provision of Funds

In regard to the funds necessary for the acquisition of the land and trees required for conversion into a Model Forest, it has been estimated that the cost of 1500 to 2000 acres of suitable land within reach of Edinburgh, and including some 500 acres of growing woods, averaging forty years in age, would not exceed £40,000; that the nett annual income from such an estate would not at first be less than £1000, and might be as high as £1500; and that this, with a temporary annual grant of £500 from Government, should be sufficient to meet all the charges of maintenance. It is not suggested that the State should grant the capital needed to acquire the land and trees. If the Government would effect the purchase, the property would, of course, be vested in the State, which would, in the course of few years, receive a perpetual revenue therefrom, representing at least a fair return on the investment. In the interests of the Edinburgh Forest School, it is imperative that this land should be obtained with the least possible delay.

In conclusion, it is necessary to consider the source from which the required capital can be provided. Why, it might be asked, should the land be *acquired* at all? Could not a proprietor be found who would be glad to profit by having his woods

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brought under systematic treatment, and would thus permit them to be used for all our purposes? The answer to this suggestion is, that however ready a private proprietor might be to place his woods at our disposal, we could not rely on any privately-owned estate, as we could never be sure that any system of management which we might introduce would be continuously followed, nor could we even feel confidence that the forest itself would not be withdrawn from our use at any moment The ownership of private estates changes by succession or sale, and successive owners may desire to alter the object of management; while, in any case, they do not all take the same interest in their woods, nor possess the same degree of knowledge as to how they should be treated; and circumstances may even constrain a proprietor to follow a course which he knows is not that best calculated to improve his property. "But," it might be urged, "even so, the woods 'of Scotland are the property of private owners, who would 'benefit by any improvement the Model Forests might lead 'to. Let them provide the needful funds." But proprietors are not by any means the only class who would benefit by the introduction of system into our management; for if it could be proved that profits are assured, and if this led to an extension of the wooded area, our supplies of timber would be better secured than they now are, and employment would be given in country districts to a large number of people who would be very glad to obtain it.

The case has been cited of land-owners in Bohemia and Moravia, who have formed associations for providing professional education for young men who desire to enter their service as foresters. But they had a notable advantage over proprietors here, in that they had an object-lesson before them in the shape of forests managed on the best principles by a department of the State. Land-owners can hardly be expected to respond readily to a suggestion that they should put their hands into their pockets, until they can feel confidence that improved management will result in a degree of financial success hitherto unattained. The practical demonstration of this result is one of the principal objects we have in view when urging the formation of Model Forests; when once land-owners have become satisfied on this point, they will doubtless be willing to endow an independent national forest school.

It seems, therefore, reasonable to ask the Government to take the first step towards a much-needed reform in our wood-management, by providing a State Model Forest in connection with the existing School of Forestry at Edinburgh. The difficulties which oppose themselves to private action in this direction are so strong, and the importance of the interests involved are so great, that, it may confidently be said that of all enterprises to which the State might offer aid or encouragement, Forestry is that which has the strongest claims on the consideration of the Government.

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The Cultivation of Gutta-Percha.

There are various classes of Colonial enterprise. Some give an immediate return, like the sugar-cane and vanilla industries. Others require a few years of work and investment before giving any return; for instance the less herbaceous and more woody crops, such as coffee, tea, and cocoa. The most woody crops, like Cinchona, rubber and gutta percha only begin to yield after some considerable period. Those who take up large domains in our new colonies will doubtless devote their first care to those crops which promise an immediate return, but they should certainly not at the same time neglect the latter class, and more especially rubber and gutta percha. Of late years, much has been heard of the various rubber trees. The conquest of Madagascar has brought the matter more within the region of practical questions. There are, indeed, in that island, several indigenous species of trees which furnish rubber of excellent quality, and there is room to hope that, with due care in exploiting the existing trees, and in making new plantations, the island may come to be a considerable and permanent source of rubber.

There is also gutta-percha, extracted from a different set of trees. Rubber comes from the Euphorbias (*Hevea*, *Siphonia*, *Manihot*, &c.), the Urticaceæ (*Ficus*, *Castilloa*, &c.), from the Apocyneæ (*Landolphia*, *Vahea*, *Kickxia*, *Hancornia*, &c.), and from the Asclepiads (*Caloropis*).* Gutta-percha comes solely from the Sapotaceæ. Baillon, in his "Medical Botany" and "History of Plants," gives a large number of species yielding gutta of more or less superior quality. The principal belong to the genera *Palanquium*, *Isonandra*, *Payena*, *Sideroxylon*, *Bassia*, *Imbricaria*, *Chrysophyllum*, *Mimusops*, *Sapota*, *Lucuma*, &c.

Among all these, four only are received in commercial circles, *viz.*, the genera *Palanquium*, *Isonandra*, *Payena*, *Mimusops*, and *Sideroxylon*. The best gutta is that of *Palanquium Gutta*, H. Bn. (*Isonandra Gutta*, Hook.—*Dichopsis Gutta*, Benth.) growing in the Malayan Peninsula,† where there were once extensive forests of this tree, but they are fast disappearing before the wasteful practice by which the sap is collected. The Malays attack trees of about 36 inches diameter and 30 years old. These are felled clean for the sake of 250—300 grammes of gutta. The coppice shoots resulting may be cut at 15 years old.

In order to produce their annual 3 million kilogrammes of gutta, the Malays have to cut down more than 10 million trees. The price of gutta has doubled in the last ten years as the result.

* Translator's Note—The juice of Calotropis appears to me to bear a much greater resemblance to gutta than to rubber. It becomes hard and brittle with age.

† Translator's Note.—The author uses "Malaise" and "Malaisienne" for Malay. Is it for the natives "Peninsule Malaisienne," and for the Europeans "Peninsule Malaise"? Probably, nay, certainly, tropical life is mostly *Malaise*.

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As early as 1892, M. Jungfleisch proposed to extract the gutta from the dry leaves by means of an appropriate solvent. The author advises toluene, M. Rigole prefers carbon disulphide, and more recently M. Obach has proposed petroleum. By this method the trees are preserved and yield a great deal more.

The leaves may be first gathered from about the age of 10 years: from 10 to 40 years (maturity), the tree gives about 190 kilogrammes of leaves, yielding 9—10 per cent. of gutta, say 19 kilogrammes, or 60 times as much as would be obtained by felling a tree 30 years old. This new and successful process should now be tried on other species of gutta-producing trees.

M. Pierre recommends the propagation of *Palanquium Malaccense* which yields the *terbow-mera* gutta of the Malayan peninsula; *P. oblongifolium* (*Isonandra Gutta*, Hook. var *oblongifolia*, de Vries) introduced in the botanic garden at Buitenzorg, Java; several *Mimusops*, of which one, the *M. Balata*, yields the *balata* or gutta of British and Dutch Guyana; *Croixia Beccanaria* which in Borneo gives the *terbow-soutra* gutta. It would indeed be easy to apply Jungfleisch's process to any of the Sapotaceæ containing gutta.

All our tropical colonies produce trees of the kind. Réunion has some splendid Mimusops, *e.g. M. calophylloides*, H. Bn., and *M. Imbricaria* W., called respectively *Petite natti*, or *natti à petites feuilles*, and *Grande natti*, or *natti à grandis feuilles*. M. Jacob de Cordemoy says of them: "formerly very common from sea 'level up to 1,200 metres, these trees, being continually cut and 'never planted, are becoming scarce." Such plantations could almost certainly be made, for M. Bojer cites several species of *Mimusops*. *M. Elengi*, *hexandra*, *Kaukii*, *fruticosa*, &c., as being actually under cultivation in the public gardens and elsewhere in that climate. Every colony might find a different species suited it best, for Cochin China the genus Palanquium seems indicated. The colonies in the Indian Ocean will doubtless suit *Mimusops*; the *Vitellaria paradoxa* (*Butyrospermum Parkii*, Kotsch) grows spontaneously in Africa and gives a very good gutta called *Seriba*. In America the *Mimusops Balata* extends from northern Brazil to the Antilles, and in Brazil itself *Mimusops elata* furnishes a gutta called Maçandulia. It is possible that further enquiry may result in the discovery of other useful species. It is easy to foresee a further extension in the demand for gutta, since it is the best possible insulating medium in all electrical work. Not only in submarine and land cables, but in surgery, in domestic economy, in Public Works, and in a large number of arts and industries, gutta is of extreme importance. England alone, between 1845 and 1896, has consumed 48,000 tons of gutta, and still the demand increases.

The timber of these trees is excellent, being strong and heavy and well marked, they are in great demand not only for building

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but for joinery, &c., and it is sure that in the near future, gutta trees will acquire a greatly increased importance.

F. JADIN,
(In the Révue des Cultures Coloniales
and Révue agricole de l' ile Maurice.)

II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

Sissu and Mulberry at Changa Manga.

SIR,

I have read with much interest "B. O. C's." article on the conversion of a Sissu into a Mulberry forest principally through the agency of birds, and to learn from him how the proportion of Mulberry in the growing stock is *now* being increased through the agency of the Tillyer (*Pastor roseus.*)

"B. O. C." does not state how the Mulberry *originally* came into the plantation. I think I am right in saying that Mulberry is not indigenous in the plains of the Punjab. I have always understood that the Mulberry was first introduced into the plantation through the agency of the canal water by which the plantation is irrigated, and in virtue of which it exists,—for if the irrigation of the plantation was stopped, both the Sissu and the Mulberry would die and the plantation would become a sandy waste, worse stocked even than the adjoining *rakhs* (natural unirrigated forests), since the indigenous trees which formerly existed on the area have. for the greater part, been killed out by the Sissu and Mulberry.—In many of the compartments, the Mulberry is found principally along the irrigation channels by which the area is watered. I think the Mulberry was first introduced through the agency of the canal water, and when once it established itself, it has been further disseminated in an extraordinary manner by birds and animals.

It would be interseting to know if the Tillyer is the only means of increasing the proportion of Mulberry in the crop, or whether other agencies help in the further dissemination of this

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species. I have never been at Changa Manga in April when the Mulberries are ripe, but have been told by the Forest Ranger there that when the Mulberry fruit was ripe, Jackals came to the forest in large numbers in order to eat the fruit which falls from the trees, and that they materially help in the dissemination of the seed.

Again, the Mulberry produces fertile seed at a very early age. Coppice shoots 4 or 5 years old, produce large quantities of fertile seeds. May not a part of the seedlings which are found on the coppiced areas, have originated from seed in the usual way?

I trust that you will understand that I am not writing in a captious spirit, but with a view to getting the whole of the facts of the case in connection with the introduction and spread of the Mulberry in the Changa Manga plantation placed on record while they can be determined with accuracy.

In the original plantation, as "B. O. C." says, the growing stock was practically pure Sissu. But in the compartments which I have examined just before, or while they were being coppiced, there was an appreciable sprinkling of young Mulberry plants under the crop of Sissu, as the former species is sufficiently shade-enduring to grow well under the latter.

The young Mulberry plants were cut over when the Sissu stems were coppiced, and would naturally develop stronger coppice shoots than the older Sissu stools, and would eventually suppress the latter wherever they were found together.

I do not know if any experiments have been made in order to determine the rate of growth of Mulberry from the seed. If not, I think it would be very interesting if experiments were made in order to determine if Mulberry seedlings could grow sufficiently rapidly to overtake the coppice shoots of the Sissu, which spring up in the same year as the Mulberry seed germinates. If the Mulberry in the new crop originates from the seed disseminated through the agency of the birds who rest in the Sissu standards left when the rest of the crop is coppiced, then the Mulberry seedlings which germinate that year must catch up the Sissu stool shoots which are developed the same year, and which must have a very decided start of the seedling Mulberries in the first instance.

An examination of the young coppiced crops show that the Sissu suckers and stool shoots can hold their own with the weeds that spring up—consequent on the admission of light when the crop is coppiced—and the Mulberry seedlings and stool shoots for 2 or 3 years. If the Sissu is not protected from the Mulberry when the crop is 3 years old, it is gradually dominated and suppressed by it, and at the age of 6 years the coppiced portion of the crop is practically pure Mulberry, while here and there some particularly vigorous stool shoots have managed to hold their own.

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The above remarks concerning the suppression of the Sissu by the Mulberry apply to most of the compartments which have been cut over in the last 10 years, and more especially to those areas which have been regularly watered.

In the older compartments, the proportion of the Mulberry to the Sissu in the coppiced portion of the growing stock is in many of the compartments small, and what is more remarkable, there are not many seedling Mulberries of a younger age than the standing crop to be found as an advance growth in these compartments. This is, I believe, particularly the case in the highest ground, or where they have been insufficiently or irregularly watered.

This factor, however, in the favour of the Sissu no longer exists, as, since the new system of irrigation channels has been completed (they were finished in 1894 (?) the whole of the plantation is watered once, and a considerable portion (including the regeneration coupe of the year), twice a year.

I am very glad to hear that it is intended to protect the Sissu stool shoots from the Mulberry, so as to ensure that the Sissu shall be maintained to as great an extent as possible in the coppice. I have always held that the Sissu ought to be protected from the Mulberry, and that it was quite possible to do so, if the Mulberry were cut away from around the Sissu at a sufficiently early age.

Personally, I am of opinion that the yield of fuel from a fully stocked area of Sissu coppice, will be greater than that derived from a fully stocked area of Mulberry of the same size. It is true that the Mulberry grows faster to begin with, but it does not attain so great a length of bole, and has a much more spreading crown than the Sissu. The consequence of this is that there would be fewer stems of Mulberry to the acre in the coppice wood, and also that the proportion of faggot-wood (small branches) in the Mulberry fuel to the billet-wood (cut from the main stems), will be considerably larger.

Another point to be considered is that, at present we do not know practically what the sale price of pure Mulberry fuel will be. I believe that it will be less than that which has been obtained from pure Sissu, or Sissu with a slight admixture of Mulberry.

"B. O. C." in his second article in the June number of the Indian Forester says that "Mulberry is of little value as 'timber, and even as fuel, is of poor quality," which would seem to point to his considering that it will not fetch so good a price as fuel as Sissu now does.

The proportion of the sap-wood to heart-wood is also of considerable importance. The fuel is cut in the cold weather and is stacked on the compartment lines. It remains there for 5 or 6 months to dry, and when it has lost the greater part of the moisture that it contained when first cut, is carried to the

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railway station and sold. During the time that the fuel is stacked on the compartment lines the sap-wood is bored, and to a great extent destroyed, by a small beetle which only attacks dead wood. The damage done by these small beetles is considerable, and at Shahdera (near Lahore) in 1896, the sale price of the fuel stacks which had been attacked by beetles, depreciated 4 annas per 100 cubic feet during one rainy season. As the beetles live principally in the sap-wood, the species which has the greatest amount of heart-wood would suffer least. It should be noted that the purchasers of fuel from the department buy it by volume and sell it by weight.

And yet one more point in favour of keeping as large a proportion of Sissu in the coppice portion of the growing stock. We know that the living Mulberry is attacked by a large longicorn beetle (probably *Cælosterna scabrata*), which does very material damage to the wood of the tree itself. So far as we know at present, no insect attacks the living Sissu.

While I am on the subject of Changa Manga, I should like to draw attention to one more point. What is to be the future sylvicultural system of management? During the first rotation, the plantation has been treated as a coppice with standards, and a prescribed number of standards per acre has been left. Is this system to be continued, or is the plantation to be converted into a simple coppice? I ask this question, because, so far as I know, no steps have been taken to provide in the present coppice crop any *seedling stems* of Sissu which can be left as standards, when the coppice is again cut over.

"B. O. C." tells us that the first coupe of the second rotation has been cut over. It would be interesting to know if any standards have been left; and if any were left, whether the stems selected as standards were seedlings, stool shoots, or root suckers. Has the rotation for the standards yet been determined?

My reason in asking these questions is that I visited a European example of coppice with standards last year and learnt many useful lessons from what I saw there.

Dr. W. Schlich, Ph. D., C. I. E., late Inspector-General of Forests to the Government of India, kindly allowed me to accompany him on the tour which he took the Coopers Hill Forest Students in 1896.

The first forest we visited was the State Forest of Kippenheim near the German Black Forest, which is treated as a coppice with standards, where the over-wood is favoured. The rotation for the coppice wood is 30 years, while that of the standards is 60 to 90 years, and exceptionally, 120 to 150 years. The rotation for the standards differs, as more than one species of tree are kept as standards, and while some of these species begin to go back at the age of 60 years, others go on growing

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vigorously to the age of 90 years, and, exceptionally, to the age of 120 to 150 years,

The standards are not equally distributed over the area, but suitable trees are left where they are found, the forest officer prefers to leave, if possible, small groups of trees together, as he finds that they produce better timber. *Only seedling plants* are left as standards, and when the under-wood (the coppiced portion of the growing stock) is cut over, strong seedling plants of suitable species are planted into the compartments between the stools, or wherever the growing stock is incomplete. These plants are often put in small groups.

When a compartment is coppiced, 550 strong plants per acre are put in pits, so as to furnish standards at the end of the coppice rotation. There is a large percentage of failures in these planting operations, and the failures are filled up for the first six years of the coppice rotation so as to ensure the area being sufficiently stocked with valuable species, and while this is being done, the seedling plants are protected from the faster-growing, less valuable stool shoots wherever necessary. The number of plants put out annually to complete the crop, is nearly as many as are planted in the first instance. One-third of the transplants put out may be expected to develop into trees suitable for standards. The height of the transplants varies from 5 to 6½ feet. This is necessary to prevent the roedeer from eating off their leading shoots. Pieces of paper are tied on to the stems of the transplants so as to frighten away the deer, and this simple expedient is found to afford protection against the roedeer.

In the first and second cleanings, great care is taken to free the seedling plants that are likely to develop into good standards. The first cleaning is made when the crop is 10 years old, and the second at the age of 20 years.

The first cleaning is a very drastic one, and all the inferior species which are interfering with, or likely to interfere with the more valuable species before the second cleaning comes round, are cut back. In the compartment visited, which had just been cleaned for the first time, the cover was considerably interrupted, and practically, only the more valuable species were left standing. A noticeable amount of weeds and grass had appeared on the area as a consequence of the cleaning. The cleaning appeared at first sight to be too severe, but the inspection of the older compartments showed that such was not the case, as the ground soon becomes covered up again and the canopy soon becomes complete again.

The standards are pruned at the time that the first cleaning is made, so as to prevent the development of strong side branches and to prevent their shading the under-wood too much and thus interfering with its development. Standards which are unhealthy

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or dying back are cut, but unless they are near the boundary of the coupe they are not removed from the area.

The second cleaning is made at the age of 20 years, and is quite different in nature from the first cleaning. The first principle to be followed in the second cleaning is that the soil must be completely protected, and consequently the leaf canopy must never be interrupted. This cleaning is made with a view to helping those members of the coppice crop that are likely to be left as standards at the end of the rotations, and with this end in view, all accessory species which are interfering with the growth of the more valuable species are cut back. These accessory species are coppiced, if this can be done, without interrupting the leaf canopy. Otherwise they are decapitated, or the branches which are interfering with, or are likely to interfere with the more valuable species in the next 10 years, are cut off close to the stem.

Groups of the more valuable species which may be left as standards are judiciously thinned, the suppressed and dominated trees which are not required to complete the leaf canopy being removed.

The small suppressed coppice shoots of the accessory species are cut back so as to keep the stools alive. If this were not done, the stools would be dead before the end of the rotation.

The two points which struck me most in the treatment of this forest were, (1) the large number of seedling plants which were planted into the coupe coppiced, and (2) the very severe nature of the first cleaning. In both the cleanings, the produce removed more than covered the cost of the operation.

HARTLEY, Plymouth,
26th August, 1898.

C. GILBERT ROGERS,
Deputy Conservator of Forests.

Sleeper-cutting in the North-West Himalaya.

SIR,

I have been slightly interested and much amused by the extract about "Sleepers on the N.-W. Railway," by Mr. V. E. De Broë, published in your August number. He is not the first, by any means, who would like the run of the Kashmir forests to cut sleepers on a royalty, but as long as I can, without injuring the forest, turn out a fair number departmentally and make double the profit these gentlemen offer, I fail to see why I should not

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continue to work as I am doing. But what amuses me is that they, one and all, assume that "such portions of the forest as 'are close to the river" have been felled out, and that to bring out sleepers from the "virgin forest to the rear" which "stand 'totally unexploited," the assistance of these contractors is necessary. I have had to explain to every applicant that no sleepers whatever are cut in places whence logs can be extracted, since the latter pay better, at present prices; work is going on in out-of-the-way valleys and "to the rear" in places from which it is quite impossible to get out logs. When they tell me that I have no appliances, and as soon as the nearer forests are "worked out," I should not be able to get out any sleepers owing to distance, I tell them that it is true the greatest distance I have ever carried is seven miles, but as at present I am working at only two miles, it will be some time before I reach my limit; and that even then I do not anticipate any difficulty in delivering from a distance of even ten miles, it is all a question of extra rates for extra distance. Then they try to overwhelm me with fearful pictures of "roads, portable railways, here and there 'a funicular railway, steam saw-mills, &c.," which "would have 'to be pushed into the interior" and of course "a staff of Euro-'pean agents, thoroughly conversant with the natives," &c., &c.

Ye Gods! fancy portable railways, and especially funicular ones, among the precipices of Kishtwar and the Kishanganga Valley, and again steam saw-mills in these wild regions. I have had experience of one steam (and water) saw-mill in Kashmir, and the carriage only of the timber to the mills cost more than it cost me to fell, log, saw and launch my sleepers into the main river! I believe the total cost of turning out sleepers in these mills comes to Rs. 1-4 each, while I was doing everything, up to putting in stacks in the Jhelum depôt, for exactly half, viz., 10 annas; and be it observed, the timber for the mills was being cut within half a mile of the saw-bench, while my work was going on at a mile, or perhaps two miles, from the main stream. There is no greater fallacy than this talk of saw-mills in forests, for the simple reason that you cannot take the mills to the tree, but the tree has to be transported to the mills. While sawyers are to be had in hundreds, who will cut sleepers for 4 annas each, I fail to see where saw-mills of any kind come in, and the experience of some 16 years in sleeper works has convinced me that it is in every way better for the Forest Department to employ native contractors and bring out its own sleepers; and I have not the slightest intention of altering my arrangements. There is another sentence of Mr. De Broë's which is amusing, where he says, "the price of deodar in log, delivered by flotation down the 'rivers, is now about 12 annas per cubic foot, and with methodi-'cal arrangements as above outlined, this would, no doubt, fall 'appreciably," &c. Does Mr. De Broë mean that with the Managing Director, on no doubt a princely salary and a free

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(furnished) house, the funicular railways, steam saw-mills and European staff, the company would be able to deliver timber in the log to the depôts in the plains at a cheaper rate than we can do it now? They will never have the chance of trying, but I think I see the broad grin of derision on the faces of all Foresters who have had experience of forest and river working. Virgin forests! Ah! "the sort of thing we read about but 'very seldom see:" there may be a few in Kashmir territory, but the proposed company will never set eyes on them. As to the exploiting of the Teak forests of Burmah "somewhat after 'this fashion," I think recent disclosures of the working of a certain Trading Company will show after what fashion these tracts have been exploited, and the fine of a lakh of rupees is not likely to be forgotten.

J. C. McD.

Germination of Teak.

SIR,

I have been trying to grow Teak in hill lands without watering the seed or seedlings, and I find that Teak seed, one year old, sown in well-pulverised earth in the month of May, germinates with the first down-pour of rain in the course of a week. The seedlings shed their leaves in the hot season but do not die. This has happened for the last two seasons in the Karad Range of the Satara District, and I wish to know what the outside experience is. I, therefore, communicate the result to you, and beg to be excused the trouble.

D. N. DAMALE,
Forest Ranger, Karad.

Effect of Eucalypti in preventing Malaria.

SIR,

Eucalypti (more especially *Eucalyptus Globulus* or the well-known Australian blue gum tree) are said to possess the peculiar property of rendering swampy and malarious places healthy—— to what extent this is true I am very anxious to know, and must appeal to you and your numerous well-informed readers——if I may do so,

S. E. J.

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III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

On the Manufacture of Tannin Extracts in Burma.

Modus operandi, 1st day.

At 4 o'clock in the afternoon, a trench is half filled with fuel consisting of dry split bamboos and the splints obtained from the barking-shed. The chatties are then placed in position along the trench and half filled with *fresh water*;* then chips are forced with a rammer into each chatty to its utmost containing capacity. At sun-down, the fuel in the trench is lighted and allowed to burn throughout the night. Early next morning, the cauldron and evaporator are placed in position and fire lighted in the oven. This being done, the cutch decoction from the chatties along the trench is poured into the evaporator and other chatties which are placed near it. The chatties (along the trench) are then re-filled with fresh water, fuel in the trench renewed, lighted and allowed to burn till the re-filling of fresh chips commences, *i.e.*, 4 o'clock in the afternoon.

The decoction is poured from time to time into the evaporator according to its containing capacity; while the liquid from the evaporator, after it gets to about the consistency of treacle, is ladled into the cauldron from time to time. This feeding goes on till about 1 o'clock in the afternoon, when we find all the liquid in the cauldron, that is to say, since morning sufficient superfluous water has evaporated to allow of the whole filling into the cauldron. About two hours' boiling in the cauldron now is sufficient to drive off the remaining water in the form of steam, consequently at 3 o'clock in the afternoon, the cauldron is taken off the oven and the extract in it stirred with a wooden pestle, which helps to cool it, until it is perfectly cool and about to set, when it is forced in lumps into the mould.

Modus operandi, second and subsequent days.

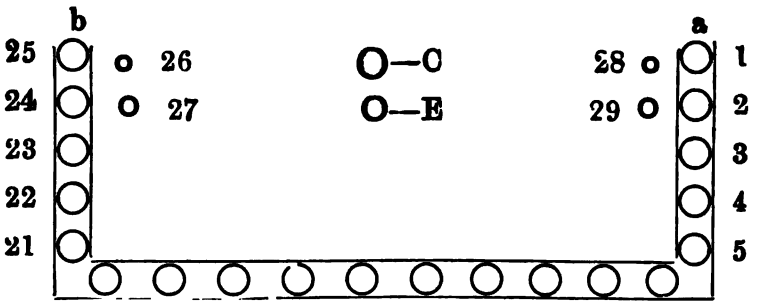
The emptying process.

At 4 o'clock in the afternoon, dry split bamboos are brought and placed along the trench on one side; the outer or the side

* Only on the first day is fresh water utilized in the afternoon.

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remote from the cauldron. This being done, the emptying of the chatties begins. This operation is done best by two men, one at either end, as 'a' and 'b', *vide* sketch.



"A" takes chatty No. 1 and empties it into No. 28, leaving the two chatties thus :—



The chatties are balanced and won't fall, the chips won't drop out of chatty No. 1, because they have been tightly rammed. 'A' then takes No. 2 and empties similarly into No. 29, he then places two or three pieces of bamboo in the trench and returns to No. 1, emptying the chips from it into the trench to cover the space of two chatties, and then placing it in its original position in the trench. (Thus the chips from one chatty do as fuel for two for 12 hours, while the dry bamboos placed at the bottom help to ignite the moist chips.) 'A' next takes No. 3, and empties the liquid into No. 1, leaving it as before on No. 1 to allow all the liquid to drip out (the same as he did in the first instance with Nos. 1 and 28); he then empties the chips of No. 2, along the space originally occupied by the split bamboos outside the trench, to cover the same length of space as chatties 1 and 2. This being done, he places the chatty in its place on the trench. He then takes No. 4, emptying the liquid into, and leaving it resting on, No. 2; places dry split bamboos in the trench and empties the chips from No. 3 on them, next placing it (No. 3) into position on the trench. Then 'A' pours the liquid from No. 5 into No. 3, and and from No. 6 into No. 4, and so on, till he meets "B," who is emptying similarly from the opposite side.

Re-filling process.

Thus we have seen how the chatties are emptied and the fuel placed in position along the trench. There is nothing in the

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chatties along the trench except a *cutch decoction*.—* (The fresh water that was poured into the chatties when the cauldron was placed in position in the morning, and allowed to boil steadily with the old chips during the day.) Next comes the filling of the chatties in the trench with fresh chips from the chipping shed. This operation is done best by three men, whom we will call *a*, *b*, and *c*,—'*a*' supplies '*b*' with a rammer about 4 feet long, and a bottomless chatty,—proceeds to fill the chips from one end of the trench into the chatties along the trench thus—he inverts his bottomless chatty till the mouth rests on, say on the mouth of No. 1 chatty.



He then allows '*a*' to pour the chips from the broken end at the top, while he rams them, standing, well into the bottom chatty with his rammer, '*b*' does the same with No. 2, and so on till the end.

C follows in *'b*'s wake, and with a small rammer, about 10 inches or a foot long, further rams the chips into the chatties till they are perfectly compact and tight inside. And so the fresh chips are put into the chatties. After all the chatties are filled with fresh chips, anyone of the three men, oftenest '*a*', brings water in a tin can and walks along one side of the trench observing the tops of the chatties; if water (cutch decoction) is visible through the interstices of the chips, it is all right; if not, the deficiency is made up with fresh water.

Lighting.

At sun-down the chips in the trench are lighted with a torch or burning cane carried on a tin tray with a bamboo handle, and allowed to burn throughout the night. Early next morning the cauldron and evaporator are placed in position, etc., etc., (same as for 1st day).

Feeding.

The cutch decoction is emptied from chatties along the trench into the evaporator and other chatties such as 26, 27, 28, and 29 in sketch, leaving nothing but chips left over from the previous evening. Then fresh water is poured into the trench chatties until water is visible through the interstices of the chips. Next, the chips that were placed along the

* Obviously fresh water has to be poured into the chatties on the first day.

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trench on the outside on the previous evening, * are pushed into the trench and lighted, continuing to burn throughout the day till 4 o'clock, when the filling of the chatties with fresh chips from the chipping shed is commenced. The cauldron is fed from the evaporator, from which the liquid is ladled out from time to time as it gets to about the consistency of treacle, with half a cocoanut at the end of a bamboo stick.

Consumption of fuel.

The consumption of a day's 'cutch' fuel weighs 180 lbs.

If other fuel be used, of less heating power, the daily consumption would average about 300 lbs.

NOTES.—Extracts of cutch and Pyinkado were prepared from the wood, that is, everything below the cambium layer was utilized.

Extracts of Taukkyan. In and Than were prepared from the bark only of each cutch, Pyinkado, Taukkyan and In two tons of chips were experimented upon and the outturn is given below.

Thus 2 tons or 4,480 lbs. of chips would yield (4480 × F) extract.

Note. F = factor which, when multiplied by the quantity of chips, will give the outturn of extract.

Cutch (Acacia Catechu).

Daily consumption of chips = 396 lbs.

Experiments extended over 11·3 days.

Daily average outturn of extract from 24 chatties and 1 evaporator

$$= \frac{589 \cdot 22}{11 \cdot 3} \text{ or } 52 \cdot 14 \text{ lbs.}$$

Total outturn = 589·22 lbs.

Value of $F = \left\{ \frac{589 \cdot 22}{4480} \right\}$ or ·131522

Pyinkado (Xylia dolabriformis).

Total outturn = 274·89 lbs.

Daily consumption of chips = 364 lbs.

Experiments extended over 12·3 days.

Daily average outturn of extract from 25 chatties and 1 evaporator

$$= \left\{ \frac{274 \cdot 89}{12 \cdot 3} \right\} 22 \cdot 34 \text{ lbs.}$$

Value of $F = \left\{ \frac{274 \cdot 89}{4480} \right\}$ or ·061359

Taukkyan (Terminalia tomentosa).

Total outturn = 399·66 lbs.

Daily consumption of chips = 336 lbs.

Experiments extended over 13·3 days.

Daily average outturn of extract from 25 chatties and 1 evaporator

$$= \left\{ \frac{399 \cdot 66}{13 \cdot 3} \right\} \text{or } 30 \cdot 04 \text{ lbs.}$$

Value of $F = \left\{ \frac{399 \cdot 66}{4480} \right\}$ or ·089245

* *Morning.*—The chatties are filled with fresh chips once in the 24 hours, *i. e.*, at 4 o'clock in the afternoon. They are also in the same time filled only once with fresh water. *i.e.*, in the morning.

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In (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus.)

Total outturn = 398·01 lbs.

Daily consumption of chips = 196 lbs.

Experiments extended over = 22·8 days.

Daily average outturn of extract from 25 chatties and 1 evaporator

$$= \left\{ \frac{398 \cdot 01}{22 \cdot 8} \right\} \text{or } 17 \cdot 45 \text{ lbs.}$$

Value of $F = \left\{ \frac{398 \cdot 01}{4480} \right\}$ or ·0888415

Than (Terminalia Oliveri.)

Total outturn = 49·8 lbs.

Daily consumption of chips = 336 lbs.

Experiments extended only over one day.

S. E. F. JENKINS,
Forest Ranger.

30th May, 1898.

IV.—REVIEWS.

Annual Report of the Travancore State for 1896-97.

This report is writtten by Mr. J. S. Sealy, but Mr. T. F. Bourdillon was Conservator during nearly the whole year. There are, apparently, 3 Divisions, Northern, Central, and Southern. All the officers made considerable tours, but the Conservator complains that tours into the interior of the forests are almost impossible from the absence of roads and inspection houses. It is, therefore, proposed to devote much attention to these matters in future as a preliminary to the preparation of Working Plans. The area of Reserved Forest at the close of the year was 1795½ square miles, of which a nett area of 336 square miles was added during the year.

Demarcation is being pushed on, the line being 20 ft. wide, with a trench on the side nearest the Reserves.

As Working Plans cannot be started quite yet, the whole of the forests have been divided into Blocks and the fellings concentrated in certain of them, as a preliminary of value. The staff of the Department consists of a Conservator, a Deputy Conservator, 4 Assistant-Conservators, 5 Rangers, 8 Deputy Rangers, 13 Foresters and 78 Forest Guards, and there are a few appointments not yet filled up. The number of forest cases brought before Magistrates was 52, while in 97 cases compensation was taken.

The remarks on 'natural reproduction' are, of course, interesting. The good reproduction of *Bombax Malabaricus*, for

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the timber of which there is a considerable and growing demand, is mentioned, as is that of *Artocarpus hirsuta*, both woods being used for tea boxes. The following extract will also be read with interest.

"It is recorded that a species of bamboo flowered during the 'year in this circle, but the particular species is not given, and that 'all other bamboos and reeds within reach of its scent, blossomed 'at the same time: this is attributed to sympathy but is of course 'merely a coincidence. Etta Reed, *Ochlandra Travancorica*, also 'flowered pretty generally in the Pulyarah subdivision, and in July 'the parent reeds began to show signs of decay. The seedlings 'have germinated freely. Here, too, it is noted that the seedling 'is by no means universal."

'Artificial reproduction' is limited to the planting of Teak, and during the year 105½ acres of Teak plantation were added, at a cost of Rs. 3,671, or Rs. 34-8 per acre. The total area of Teak plantation is 1273·4 acres, which has cost to date Rs. 1,73,886.

The Financial results of the year were :—

		Rs.
Revenue ...	...	4,50,147
Expenditure	...	2,50,645
Surplus	...	1,99,502

which is less than last year's by nearly Rs. 78,000, chiefly because large stocks of timber in the depôt remained unsold.

The chief minor produce articles are; (1) Cardamoms, revenue Rs. 2,584 ; (2) Ivory, revenue Rs. 2,444 ; and (3) Wax and Dammer, revenue Rs. 1,424.

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

The Composition of Indian soils.

The Agricultural Ledger for 1898 contains in No. II a note by Dr. Leather, Agricultural Chemist to the Government of India, on the composition of Indian soils. The soils dealt with are divided into four main types, *i. e.*, the Indo-Gangetic and other alluvium, the black cotton soil or Regur, the red soils lying on the metamorphic rocks of Madras, and the laterite soils. These four types are said to occupy by far the greater part of the Indian cultivated area, and to possess more characteristic differences in appearance than any other minor classes of soil. Each of these types is described by means of samples, and a statement is attached showing the composition of different samples of each type collected from different districts. The latter part of the

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note deals separately with Coffee and Tea Garden soils, and also gives the results of the analysis of samples of the Poona, Nagpur, Cawnpore and Dumraon Farms' soils.

The conclusions drawn from the examination of the different classes of soils are briefly as follows. The proportion of Silicates is generally low or variable, except in the soils of the alluvial plains, where the amount is much the same as in English loams or clays. Judged from a European standard also, the proportion of Iron, Aluminium, Manganese, Lime, Magnesia and Potash appears to be generally sufficient or high. As regards Phosphoric acid, it is stated that the amount is frequently small, wherein the writer's results differ from those obtained by Dr. Voelcker.

Sulphates are contained in very small amounts, and the amount of organic matter is also generally small, though to this there are of course exceptions. The percentage of Nitrogen is usually low, and Dr. Voelcker's opinion that Indian soils are generally very deficient in Nitrogen, is amply supported by the results of Dr. Leather's analysis. Professor Wallace's opinion was that the fertility of the soil is not being exhausted by the native practices that have been going on for thousands of years in India, but then he makes a distinction between temporary and natural fertility, a distinction which Dr. Leather points out is not a real one, but merely a question of terms. The latter, however, thinks that the export of food grain from India has been considered to be a far more serious drain than it really is, and that it is more important to consider how the fertility of the land can be increased, than to consider whether the land is becoming exhausted, and that it would be more correct to say the fertility of the land in India is not only low compared with that of other countries, but that if it is not decreasing, it is certainly not increasing. He further states, also, that it must be admitted that with a better supply of manure the fertility would be immediately increased, and more grain produced per acre.

A big Deodar log.

During the work of preparation of sleepers in the Dumrali Block of the Deota Range, Jaunsar Division, an old deodar log was discovered buried in the ground. It was dug out and proved to be perfectly sound. When cut up, it gave 460 metre-guage sleepers and some 'kurries.' The base section, where a stump piece had been left, showed 534 annual rings,—all heart-wood—the sap-wood would probably have given about another 16, so that its age may be set down as 550 years up to the time of its fall. But since then a long period had elapsed, for a 6 ft. birch tree was growing on top of its roots, itself probably nearly 100 years old. There cannot, therefore, be much less than

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650 years since the tree was a seedling. The length was about 90 feet—14 sleeper lengths were cut off it—and the mean diameter at the base was 7 feet. The bottom length gave 45 sleepers.

In the adjoining forest of Moriru, containing very large timber, but still showing marks of previous cultivation, was the base shell of a huge deodar, 34 feet in girth, and near by was another, 7 feet in diameter, growing on top of a rough masonry wall, which had probably belonged to a house or temple. On a rough estimate, nearly 700 years must have passed since the house became a ruin.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

September 5th, 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—The deliveries for the first eight months of the year amount to 12,607 loads, against 11,868 loads for that period of 1897, and for August 928 loads this year, against 1,155 loads of last year. There is a lull in the demand for floating cargoes at present, but prices on the spot keep very firm.

ROSEWOOD.—East India.—Continues in steady demand at full prices.

SATINWOOD.—East India.—There is a good demand for figury wood at high prices, but plain wood is rather neglected.

EBONY.—East India.—Sound wood, of good colour, would come to a fair market.

Price Current.

Indian Teak, per load ...	...	£ 10 10s.	to £ 15 10s.
Rosewood „ ton ...	...	£ 9	to £ 10
Satinwood „ sq. foot	...	5 *d.*	to 12 *d.*
Ebony „ ton ...	...	£ 6	to £ 8

Denny, Mott and Dickson's Wood Market Report.

LONDON, 1ST SEPTEMBER, 1898.

TEAK.—The landings in the London Docks last month aggregated 805 loads of logs and planks, as against 2,268 loads for the corresponding month of last year. The deliveries into consumption were 989 loads, as against 1,039 loads in August, 1897. The stocks in London Docks analyse as follows:—

9,313	Loads of Logs,	as against	10,260	Loads	at the same date last year.
3,527	„	Planks	„	2,259	„	„	„
20	„	Blocks	„	24	„	„	„
Total 12,860	Loads			12,543	Loads	„	„

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Although retail business has been marked by a holiday dulness, large forward contracts for teak have been made against Naval requirements, and in consequence, increased figures are being required for floating supplies. Prices at the shipping Ports also continue to harden, especially for cargoes of good cube, as the new season's supplies promise to consist of logs of a smaller average cube than is usual, and the cost of sizeable timber for Europe will thereby be enhanced.

The steady Rolling-stock demand continues, but the increased Naval demand from France, Russia, Germany, and America is the main ground on which the shippers build their expectation of a ready sale for all the supplies of European quality which are likely to come to hand at the shipping Ports during the present season.

Holders on this side, whilst they should be in a very favourable position with their present stocks, and also for any of their unsold supplies now on the way, will naturally be cautious in committing themselves to the increased pretensions of shippers, until the close of the season for supplies from the forests—about December—gives them clearer ground for forming a sound opinion as to how far the actually ascertained supply at the shipping Ports will be likely to meet the estimated European demand for next year.

MARKET RATES OF PRODUCE.

Tropical Agriculturist. September, 1898.

Cardamoms	per	lb.	3s.	to	3s. 2d.
Croton Seeds	,,	cwt.	87s.	to	90s.
Cutch	,,	,,	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic, Madras	,,	,,	22s. 6d.	to	40s.
,, Kino	,,	,,	70s.	to	82s. 6d.
India rubber, Assam	,,	lb.	2s. 7d.	to	3s. 3½d.
,, Burma	,,	,,	2s. 3d.	to	3s. 1¾d.
Myrabolams, Madras	,,	cwt.	5s.	to	5s. 3d.
,, Bombay	,,	,,	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
,, Jubbulpore	,,	,,	4s. 6d.	to	8s.
,, Calcutta	,,	,,	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	,,	,,	8s.	to	10s.
Oil, Lemon Grass	,,	lb.	4½ d.		
Sandalwood, Logs	,,	ton	£30	to	£50.
,, Chips	,,	,,	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood	,,	,,	£4	to	£5. (nom.)
Seedlac	,,	,,	60s.	to	68s.
Tamarind	,,	,,	4s.	to	6s.

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THE

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A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OF

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AGRICULTURE, SHIKAR & TRAVEL.

EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN

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THE
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Method in Fire Conservancy.

My apology for writing on such a hackneyed subject as Fire Conservancy is, that since there are various systems in different parts of India, a comparison may be advantageous, and also, because I wish to elicit from other foresters ideas on the subject that are new and will be of use to myself. I think one is a little too apt to trust to luck in Fire Conservancy, and as soon as the monsoon has removed our anxieties, to forget the lessons of the past months, and put the painful subject aside. So that, perhaps, there is room for more method in carrying through this, the most important of all an Indian Forest Officer's duties. As long, moreover, as we are careful to mention that we are only theorizing (and not stating things proved by experience), I believe much good may arise from airing new ideas. For while there may be much that is wild in many of them, they may, nevertheless, suggest useful innovations, or, after modification and paring down to fit them to hard fact, may result in something practical. Thus, Mr. Fernandez suggested that we might adopt the plan of a telephone, as used in the south of France, and, though it probably sounded extravagant to many, circumstances are imaginable in which it might conceivably pay, and the telephone be utilized, not merely for Fire Conservancy purposes, but to replace (under suitable safeguards) much of the lengthy writing and carrying of "dâk" by rapid verbal communication with Range Officers.

Fire-protection, as I have seen it carried out, has consisted generally in the clearing (at great cost and some risk) of fire-lines, the appointment of fire-watchers, and—when a fire occurs—in the calling out to extinguish it of such persons as the Forest Act gives us a claim upon.

The burning of fire-lines not unfrequently results in the burning of the forest itself, and the area put out of cultivation by making fire-lines is considerable. Of the former, most people

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will be able to recollect examples. As an example of the latter, I calculate that in the last Division I held, there were something under 3 square miles of fire-line to something under 300 square miles of forest protected, and the system of lines was not as yet complete One per cent. may not seem high, but three square miles of forest is not inconsiderable. Thus, if fire-lines could be reduced it would, in some senses, be economical.

At the same time it is a mistake to be parsimonious in spending money on such an utterly important measure as Fire Conservancy, and I would unhesitatingly spend far more than at present, did it result in increased efficiency. Only it seems to me that money might sometimes be better applied to this end of efficiency in other ways, while we could, without impairing efficiency, save in some directions in which we now spend. We will consider this below.

Then I think the present method of employing fire-watchers may probably be modified with advantage, and the services of many of them be better utilized in another way. The fire-watcher, all unwatched in the forest, is sometimes a risk himself. This point, too, we will consider below.

As to the calling out of right-holders, and the others similarly placed in this connection, what labour it generally is! How long they take in coming, while the fire is increasing by arithmetical progression, and how they melt away at the first possible moment! Their work is often quite unskilled, and they put no heart into it at all. Finally, in distant parts, it sometimes happens that no such help even is available. The cases of willing help are few and far between. These persons must, indeed, be called out, but to rely on them for practically all the work in putting out fires is, in my opinion, quite an insufficient precaution to take. The forest establishment and fire-watchers are spread over large areas, and only the few within reasonable distance can come. In fires extinguished by means of right-holders, *very* much larger areas are burnt than would be the case with more efficient men—and inasmuch as there is in this way a great loss of prospective revenue to the State, it is the reverse of true economy to trust to these persons alone. Had we a more complete system, I believe we might annually save a great deal that is at present burnt.

Everything (including experience) points to the high advisability of *maintaining regular, trained, expert gangs of firemen*, men whose special business it is to extinguish fires. The direct expense is, no doubt, considerable, but the indirect economy is very great. Even the direct increase in expenditure does not amount to much more than the difference between the employment of daily labour and of contract, as we shall see further on. There is a great deal in habit, and one will sometimes see an officer extravagant about, say, plantation, which

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is a time-honored forest operation, while yet he will think twice about spending money on some useful measure of Fire Conservancy. But are not Rs. 5,000 (or even Rs. 10,000) better spent on fire-protecting 200 sq. miles of forest than Rs. 500 on 20 acres of plantation?

Moreover, it seems to me probable that in the future Fire Conservancy will be more difficult than at present. Fires due to mere ignorance have already much decreased, and will continue to do so, but the population will more and more press up to the reserve boundaries, and the fear of that vague power, the *Sirkar*, which now in distant parts acts strongly through its very mysteriousness, will probably pass away, and the ease with which fires can be lit undetected, will be discovered sooner or later. Then rapid and expert dealing with fires will be absolutely necessary.

I have myself worked with fire-gangs for some years in more than one Division, and I believe it is a long-established practice in the School Circle. My original reason for adopting it was that my forests were so placed that I ran the risk, unless I made arrangements in advance, of finding them on fire and no one available to put them out. Moreover, it was so strongly borne in upon me how exceedingly important it is to tackle fires at an early stage, and how rapidly a fire, at the beginning quite manageable, may run into a dangerous conflagration, very difficult to extinguish, and burn an enormous area. But the same reason that led to the necessity for making arrangements in advance, also made it no easy matter to raise the gangs, and to organize the system as satisfactorily as I should have liked. Labour was very hard to obtain, by reason of the unhealthiness of the place. Nevertheless, I had progressed very fairly well, and had I remained in that country, I am convinced I should have been able to carry the thing through completely. I do not know if the plan has been carried on since I left. I note all this, as it is very important to remember that the universal "dastur" of India takes a considerable time to conquer, until in its turn, a new "dastur" has been established. Much steady pressure and perseverance are requisite to thoroughly inaugurate systems of this kind, and until this has been patiently done, the thing must not be considered to have had a proper trial. It was the same, I am told, when Fire Conservancy was first started in the "Bhabar" Division of the Central Circle (N.-W. P.); fire-watchers were very difficult to get, whereas now the post is much run after. I found much relief from having these gangs, and their presence resulted in greatly curtailing the area which would otherwise have been burnt.

It will be well to quote a few examples of the great use that fire-gangs have been in places where they have been employed.

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The most marked example I know is that of the Ranikhet Reserve in the Central Circle of the N.-W. P. This Reserve consists of Chir (*Pinus longifolia*), than which it is hard to find any class of forest more inflammable. The habit of the species is to grow, after a certain age, in a relatively open condition, thus encouraging the growth of grass, and enormous quantities of resinous needles drop steadily throughout the hot weather. Moreover, it grows on slopes, up which fire rushes, and down which also it spreads rapidly through the rolling of flaming cones and dead wood. Then, the Ranikhet Reserve is placed most awkwardly and dangerously, for it adjoins a Military Station, and soldiers, who smoke continuously, are constantly in it. The soldiers are generally ignorant of the meaning of Fire Conservancy, very often do not understand the warnings of the establishment, and, it is to be feared, pay little heed to them when they do understand. Such a forest would, one would think, be burnt through and through constantly. Yet since the beginning of fire-protection in 1877, there has only, I believe, been one serious fire. That fire got completely out of hand, burnt the whole Reserve, all the neighbouring forests, and, I think, pretty well the whole station area, endangering the buildings themselves. The reason for this comparative immunity is simply that the Chaubattia Forest garden overlooks the Reserve. At this garden is the Ranger's head-quarters, and some thirty men work there practically always. The moment smoke is seen, the Ranger and this gang pounce down on the fire and prevent its spreading. Annually, some eight or ten fires start, but they are promptly extinguished. Such is the advantage of having a gang ready to the Ranger's hand.

Another example is the case of the Airadeo Forest, in the same Division. It consists of some 16,000 acres of Chir, and was some years ago much afflicted by bad incendiarism. One year half the forest was burnt in about a week, the incendiarism only beginning about a week before the Rains. The next year a gang (of some twenty or twenty-five men, if I recollect rightly,) was employed, ostensibly to make roads, but really of course to guard against fires. There were twenty-three fires lit that season, fourteen of them being lighted in one night! Yet only some 2,300 acres were burnt—the comparative immunity being entirely due to the presence of the gang.

Some three or four years ago there was an extremely dry season, and the Fire Conservancy returns of the province (N.-W. P. and Oudh) presented a truly pitiable spectacle. Tens of thousands of acres were, if I recollect rightly, not seldom burnt at a time, and it was the rule for the fires to be very large. But the record of the Dehra Dun Division of the School Circle, although it showed a considerable number of fires, also showed that in all cases, save one (which, however, was, I think, under 2,000 acres), the fires had been quickly ex-

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tinguished. That one relatively large fire came over from the neighbouring Division, and was in distant and difficult country. I believe I am right in saying that it is the custom to entertain fire gangs in the Dehra Dun Division, and to these gangs the early mastery of the fires was in all probability due.

It was remarked above that if we could reduce the number of fire-lines, we should economise both area and expenditure, and avoid risk. A regular trained gang will of course burn lines far more safely and expeditiously than a scratch gang collected temporarily for the purpose, and this is in itself a strong argument for entertaining a gang of expert men. But the wind may spring up suddenly during line-burning, any accident may carry the fire from the line into the forest, and therefore, *primâ facie*, the less line-burning we have to undertake the better. Now I maintain that *men (on the spot) are worth more than lines.* An examination of the fire-record maps will generally show that the greater part of the perimeter of burnt areas, if not the whole, lies in the forest itself. or along some little stream or path. The lines are usually fallen back upon only as a last resource. And with an expert gang this would be still more the case. As the system, then, is more and more thoroughly organized, I hope for the gradual reduction in the number (or at least the area) of fire-lines, which are now becoming very numerous and unwieldy, and a great tax on our time and money. As for the work of the gangs, I believe it will improve continually, until a splendid pitch of efficiency is reached.

It may be that the form of fire-line we shall eventually be able to do with—at least in large proportion—will be one merely suited for counter-firing from. Such lines need not of course be so broad as lines intended to act automatically, a thing, moreover, that even very broad lines will often fail to accomplish. As long, however, as we cannot be sure of having men, and those skilful, on the spot, before the fire has attained large dimensions, this increase in the relative number of small to large lines might be unwise. Even if we could rely on the early arrival of impressed men, we could not rely on their skill, energy and care. Too much stress can hardly be laid on the *great* advantage of having men ready to hand who are experienced in choosing the right place for, and the right method of, attacking a fire, who will in consequence be bold and enterprising, and who will exercise that great care both in working forward and patrolling back, that is so necessary to prevent the recrudesence of a fire, and for the want of which so many fires break out afresh.

Special arrangements for the efficiency of the gangs should be made in various ways. In the first place, grumb-

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ling or idle coolies should be eliminated carefully, and the mates (*i.e.* head-men) should be chosen with circumspection. Often it is best to let the mate bring his own gang, only insisting on the removal of unsuitable men, and seeing that as far as possible, the same men are brought each season.

It may even be wise to pay slightly higher wages to specially good men. We shall thus obtain a gang that will work well together, form a sort of family party, and be much more contented than it would otherwise be. A great thing is to try and establish the notion that this particular service is the special property of this particular gang, and care should be taken not to lightly change the mates or unnecessarily move the gangs to ranges they do not know, for habit goes for so much with them. Each man should have a sickle (*daranti*), a few of them axes also, while one man of high caste should be water-giver for fires to the whole party. Each man should carry food with him when he goes to work, that an immediate start may be made if fire breaks out. Each range, too, should have a proper supply of empty kerosine tins, or *mashaks* for extinguishing burning stumps. And in this connection I may mention that when a Range Officer turns out villagers or others to go to a large fire, he will do far better work by stopping to see that every one has food with him, that suitable men, properly provided with vessels, are appointed to supply drinking water, and that sickles, axes, kerosine tins or *mashaks*, &c., are taken, than by rushing off any how to the fire, and allowing the men to come straggling along, unequipped, to the fire, before reaching which, moreover, they will, if left to themselves, have considerably dwindled in numbers. A little "*bandobast*" will go very much farther than a deal of hustling about. When food has to be sent up to a fire, a good form to supply is "*sattu*," a sort of ready-prepared cake.

Now, although efficiency will mean economy in extinguishing fires, the fire-gang should not be allowed to simply sit still and wait for fires. It should be employed on works which can be done during the hot weather in the comparatively cool hours of the morning and evening. Some six or seven hours' work can in this way be accomplished. The following are works of this kind. Climber-cutting in coupes and along lines and roads (to prevent the leaves of the climbers blowing on to them), girdling trees to be killed on new fire-lines, or under the prescriptions of Working Plans in worked out coupes, removing rubbish from fire-lines, or dead wood from near lines, roughly repairing main roads still open to export, valuation surveys, watering in plantations, and many other works which do not involve great bodily labour or digging in hard ground. I might add tree-marking in coupes, but of course the selection of trees is better done while the leaves

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are on, which is not the case in most of the N.-W. P. forests during the hot weather. Nevertheless, so great are the areas to be now marked under the new Working Plans, that it is seldom possible to finish the marking during the cold season; moreover, the state of the grass in the hot weather allows this work to be more easily done during the hot than the cold weather.

In some parts it is very difficult to obtain labour during the hot weather, and it is then necessary to pay the men a rupee a month more after the 15th March (or possibly the 1st April). It is also necessary to withhold this rupee until the gang is dismissed, and only to pay, provided the man has stayed right through to the end. Absolute strictness on this point must be adhered to, for otherwise the men will leave on all sorts of excuses. Even the excuse of illness should not be accepted, for although it seems hard, who can always correctly judge of what is really illness, and after all, we do not want sickly men to serve in the gangs. It should work quite automatically; the man who has stayed right through is the recipient of the extra pay, the man who has not done so, is not. Only if an equally efficient substitute has been provided by the man, can this rule be perhaps relaxed. All the rules and conditions of the service should be set down clearly on paper and signed by each man, so that he may know what to expect, have no cause for complaint, and feel himself bound. In order to make the service more acceptable, the Range Officer should be most careful to disburse the past month's pay *regularly* on the morning of the 7th of the following month, thus holding in hand one week's pay in addition to the deferred pay referred to above. This regularity goes a long way with coolies. But Range Officers are sometimes very bad about attending to this rule.

I do not know if it would be wise, or not, to go a step further and give small rewards for the specially successful fire-protection in specially difficult places. As an example, suppose in one range we have a gang of one mate and 12 men, who, by extra good service, have prevented the area burnt, from exceeding 100 acres. Perhaps we pay the mate Rs. 5, and each man Rs. 2; total Rs. 41. In another range with less success (say not more than 300 acres burnt), but still good service, we award perhaps Rs. 2 to the mate and Re. 1 to each man; total Rs. 14. There may be drawbacks to this plan, but if emulation towards success is induced, it will be a great thing.

I think the entertainment of a special gang will allow us to reduce the number of the fire-watchers a little. These men should be posted at a few points, so selected as to have the whole fire-protected area observed, or they should be specially appointed to patrol open roads, or places where trespass is probable. It

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seems to me they are at present sometimes uselessly employed to walk along quite unfrequented lines, and might there be done away with. It should generally be possible, too, to have the whole area observed from a very few high points.

As explained above, the gang would be employed on works suited to the hot weather, but there are other works only possible in the cold weather, for which specially trained men would be very useful. Such works are tree-felling, road-making, fire-line burning, and some others. In close pole forest, worked under Improvement Fellings, it is really impossible to allow the purchaser to fell himself, for he is careless, and no amount of fining will prevent great damage being done. I should be inclined, also, to do the fire-line work with a regular expert gang, for such men will, by reason of their training, work quickly and also safely. Thus, it may be worth while to sometimes employ special gangs during the cold weather also, and doing so would save us from many, often irretrievable, mistakes. But of course there is not as much ground for entertaining special daily labour gangs in the cold weather as in the hot.

In large fires, extraneous assistance will, no doubt, be required, and it will be necessary to call out those upon whom the Act gives us a claim. Indeed, it is useful sometimes to do this, lest these persons should forget we had a right to their services, but too much of it is very harassing. We should be careful, too, to insist on our call being obeyed, and punish recalcitrancy promptly; otherwise people will systematically refuse to come. It is, however, often very difficult to prove that the summons was actually delivered, and it is, therefore, very necessary to make methodical arrangements, so as to prevent escape by means of an excuse of this kind. Before going further, I would draw the attention of officers to a peculiarity of the Forest Act. The section under which we can call out assistance has no penalty clause, and although there is another section prescribing a penalty for a breach of *Rules* made under the Act for which no special punishment is given, this will not suffice. I believe, however, that a punishment can be inflicted under the Penal Code; but officers who are Magistrates under the Forest Act have no power, it seems to me, to punish. The calling out is, I think, best done through the District officials (tehsildars, patwaris, &c.), and the Forest Officer will do well to ask the District Officer in advance, to impress upon his subordinates, possibly even at the beginning of *each* hot weather, the necessity for assisting in putting out fires. Ignorance of the Forest Act is very common in this matter. Another plan which may be useful, when the first is not feasible, is to supply Range Officers with printed forms of demand for assistance, the section of the Act authorizing the demand being printed *verbatim* on the back of the form. Vacant spaces for the name of the head-men summoned to call out their villagers, and for the names

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of the *two* persons (for to send *two* is desirable) who may carry the summons, should be left, and filled in at the time by the Range Officer, who will of course then sign it.

It is very important, indeed, that the countryside should realize the fact that there are not two *Sirkars*, but one *Sirkar*, and that the District Officer is behind the Forest Officer. The former is, in fact "the man with the stick," and this is an aspect of him well understood by the people. The District Officer is, in many cases, to some extent the official superior of the Forest Officer, and this is often of great use. But it is well for the latter, in his own interests, were there no other good reasons, not to be too departmental-minded. An imperial-minded attitude on the part of the Forest Officer will lead the District Officer to look at forest matters in a more sympathetic way, and that is the only true position in which to judge rightly of anything. The District Officer will then no longer merely admit *theoretically* the advantage of Fire Conservancy, but he will discover its extreme importance. Once he has progressed this far, an immense step has been made. Indeed, in view of the coming increased difficulty of Fire Protection, it is all-important to secure the adherence of the District Officer, not to speak of its other great advantages Then we shall see him regularly doing things such as I have once known a District Officer do (and that not in the presence, or with the knowledge of the Forest Officer), *viz.*, call together the people where an incendiary fire had occurred the previous season, and give them a severe rowing for burning, as he said, "*my* forest."

These are forcible measures, which are unfortunately often necessary, but it is of course much better to *lead* the population, when practicable, to help in Fire Conservancy. Splendid work in this direction has been occasionally done by some officers, and it is to be hoped their methods may spread. Whenever it is possible to employ *local* labour on forest works, it should be done. The population should (and would, were it less ignorant) look upon the local forest as its "father and mother," a fruitful source, ever ready at hand, to supply them with the means of paying the land revenue demand. There are a few cases in which distant villages are administered by the Forest Officer, and I believe the plan acts well. The villager is there "the man" of the Forest Department, and I dare say he objects to forest measures, that is, really minds them, much less than he would under the ordinary circumstances, while probably the Forest Officer, too, learns to see better where the shoe really pinches, and unconsciously maintains a more sympathetic attitude. Much depends on the character of the Range Officer. I have known one, much beloved, and looked up to in the countryside. He could always obtain labour and protect his forests well. On one occasion a fire occurred accidentally

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in this man's Range, and two hundred and fifty men immediately left the collection of their crops, and, without being called, came and put out the fire; nor would they accept any payment. I am glad to say it was possible, later on, to repay them by granting fire wood to rebuild their village, when it was burnt down. Probably this Range Officer's method consisted merely in good-tempered tact and prompt payment for work done. He was not even a high caste man, though care should always be taken, if possible, to have high caste Range Officers. It is a point much too seldom remembered.

Although local labour should always be employed when practicable, it is not, I think, wise to appoint local fire-watchers. They can often obtain more help in case of a fire than an outsider can, but so many of them have enemies, and what more easy and obvious than to try and get the fire-watcher into trouble by lighting his forest. For a similar reason it is usually unwise to contract, as has sometimes been done, with local head-men for the protection of an area of forest.

While a reduction in the area occupied by the larger class of fire-lines is much to be desired, a certain number will always no doubt be a necessity, and it may, therefore, be useful to note a few points connected with their effective making and up-keep, for systems vary. I have served in a Circle where they make so-called "*kutcha*" lines, that is, lines not cleared of tree-growth, and also in another Circle where so-called "*pucca*," that is, completely cleared lines, are the only kind used. I am unhesitatingly in favour of the latter, where it is a question of forest of which the leaves drop in the hot weather. Thick belts of tree-growth killing out grass can be made much use of during a fire, but for a line proper, this is not sufficient, nor will *kutcha* lines often grow like this I suspect. Although clearing tree-growth puts much ground out of cultivation, the trees on *kutcha* lines will not be growing under favourable conditions either. It seems to me that *kutcha* lines cannot be effective. They remain damp (and therefore unburnable) as long as the surrounding forest, and, in Sâl forest anyhow, become constantly covered with dry leaves. To be continually sweeping these lines involves much labour and industry, and any dereliction of duty may render the line useless at any moment. With a *pucca* line, on the other hand, we have the grass drying much earlier, so that it can be burnt while the forest is still damp. Mr. Fernandez says such lines become covered with dry leaves like *kutcha* lines. If it were so, it would, at any rate, not involve the same amount of sweeping, but I cannot agree that it is so. Some leaves, no doubt, blow on to the line, but even these few can be reduced by care in having all climbers cut along the edges, and by cutting back the branches of the bordering trees. The leaves of the *maljhan* (Bauhinia Vahlii) fall thickly, and are a source of danger if not so dealt with. The

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cutting back of branches will induce a bushy growth, and also bring up a close crop of young trees along the line edges, and thus, in Sâl forest, form a thick wall of young green leaves early in the hot weather (since young Sâl comes quickly into new leaf), which is a safeguard against flying sparks. The thick young growth, too, will kill down the grass along the edges, and facilitate line-burning. On the *pucca* lines, the grass, besides drying early, will grow well, and this results in a more thoroughly-burnt line. In one Division I held, I found 40 ft. lines in Chir forest. This width certainly was insufficient to keep clear of needles, but I broadened the lines to 100 ft. and I am told by the officer now holding the Division that the width has been found sufficient for the purpose.

Another difference of system between the two Circles above-mentioned is, that while in the one the standing grass is burnt from cut guide-lines, in the other they cut the whole width of the lines, leave the cut grass to dry, and then burn it. The latter plan is about ten times as expensive as the former, and depends on a large labour-supply, because full-breadth cutting is a long process. But it is much safer, because it allows of the lines being very cleanly burnt early in the year, while the forest is still green. It seems to me that a compromise between the two systems is the right course, but it will take some time and perseverance to introduce, where full-breadth cutting has been in vogue, since the contractors and Range Officers are both against it. Less money passes, and the old system has become a fixed "*dastur*." Officers should realise how difficulties are manufactured on such occasions, and that steady purpose must be brought to bear before such measures can be considered to have had a fair trial. I have myself given the plan a short trial, and succeeded fairly well, and I can see that a little more steady pressure will bring it through to complete success. My rule has been to have only guide-lines cut, except in dangerously steep or damp places (where the full breadth was cut). The grass from the guide-lines is of course thrown on to the edge of the grass that is to be burnt. The first burning should be made in December or January, before the winter rains, so far as this is practicable, and during the hottest part of the day. This burning will be incomplete, but what remains to be done is short and simple. The men must return along the line, cutting the unburnt parts, and a little later on, after this cut grass has dried, it can be quickly and easily burnt by a few men. We shall thus have made what use we can of fire, and, at a considerably reduced cost, have cleared the lines cleanly while the forest is still green, and got our lines ready well in advance of the dangerous season. Ridge lines, being the best drained, dry earliest, and therefore, should be the first to be taken in hand.

It is of the greatest importance to clear away rubbish from upon, and from near, lines. Bamboo-cutters and dry wood exporters have a bad way of preparing and chopping their produce

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on lines, leaving much refuse. This refuse takes several years to burn away completely, or disappear through the agency of white ants, and cannot be safely left where it lies. Then when cutting new lines, the contractors must of course convert the timber on the line, and they fail to properly collect the branches and chips into heaps along the centre. Sometimes I have attempted to make them drag all inexploitable material into the forest to a distance from the line, but this is difficult to enforce, and not a good plan in several ways. Very large logs, that for any reason are not exploitable, are a source of difficulty, and if left, take many years to burn, and remain a source of great danger. I really think a few dynamite cartridges would be the best way of breaking them up.

When there is young growth on new lines to be cleared that will coppice up again if cut, it should be girdled instead of cut, or, if very small, grubbed up by the roots. The following year it can then be cleared, and this should on no account be postponed, for girdled trees which are left standing on a line are of course terribly dangerous. I have known girdled lines from which the trees have not been afterwards cleared; there was a constant fall of dry wood and bark, which covered the line with smouldering refuse. In the same way stumps will smoulder for weeks, and the fire, being inside, may not at once show. Theoretically, one might cut the stumps very low, with a saw for choice, and peel away any bark that remained, but practically, though expensive, I think grubbing up by the roots is preferable. This, however, is impossible with enormous *Bargat* (Banyan) and such-like trees.

Our Working Plans often prescribe the girdling of trees which, though marked for removal, have not been found worth removing by the exporters. Such trees should not be girdled within, say, 3'0 ft. of a line. In fact all dry wood is best removed from near lines, and if it cannot be sold for fuel or charcoal, it may be *given away* free. I have often got lines, burdened with trees, very satisfactorily cleared by giving the material away at a low rate, or free, to charcoal-burners. All the dead stuff (and the green too, that requires removal) within a given distance of the line can be given in also.

There is difference of opinion also on the subject of fire-lines along ridges. I have known two neighbouring Divisions, separated by a rough ridge having no line along it. This boundary ridge was in very scanty, dry forest, very distantly situated. The anxiety this used to cause was very great, and it was fully justified, since fires constantly crossed and caused great devastation. The question of a ridge-line was mooted, but was vetoed, I believe, on the ground of the rough nature of the ridge and of expense. The saving that might have been already made by stopping the bad fires that have crossed, would have made the expense to be incurred worth while, and as to the roughness of the ridge, the

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neighbouring circle contains great lengths of ridge-line in extremely rough ground. By cutting the full width of the grass in bad places, these lines are safely burnt; indeed it is quite extraordinary in what difficult places they can be burnt in this way, early in the year Nevertheless, where a ridge is exceptionally bad, a little ingenuity will often allow us to get round the obstruction;—one can perhaps leave the ridge, run down a spur into a stream, then down the stream, and up another spur. This will avoid running the line along a side-slope, across which burning material could roll. Still, although this is only an idea which I have never actually tried, I belive one might, in order to avoid a bad bit of serrated ridge, run the line safely across a side-slope by banking up its edge (for choice its lower edge), so as to catch rolling fir-cones and so forth, but the bank would have to be somewhat steep and high, since burning fire-cones will bound. If, then, in the case of the ridge I mentioned above, some such plan were adopted in dealing with the bad places, and a line made the whole length of the ridge, my belief is, that a very useful and important work would be the result. The place is one where even a permanent gang could not be located, and where, by reason of its exceptional difficulty, they would need a broad line to work from. Personally, I would go further and make the line so broad that it would act automatically, for the forest is very poor, and never will be otherwise.

Much economy can be effected by carefuly examining the map, and utilizing broad stream beds as much as possible. A short length of line across a ridge between two stream beds will give very effective protection, and require very little annual clearance. If the grass encroaches on one of these stream beds, it should of course be burnt off.

Evergreen belts are sometimes spoken of for fire-lines, and it has been suggested to plant *Ficus elastica* cuttings for this purpose. I am not in a position to judge of these suggestions, but I have often seen the value, when extinguishing fires, of thickly-grown advance-growth which has killed down the grass. It is in such places very quick and easy work to clear a small line among the leaves to counter-fire from, and when such growth is in the form of a belt, it makes a very useful form of fire-line, not, of course, an automatic one, but one which can be utilised when men are on the spot. And this is a strong argument for growing our forests, when the species will admit of it, on the uniform system (shelterwood compartment system of Schlich), which, fully brought into shape, will give us a forest without grass, save over an insignificant proportion of the area. This result cannot be hoped for, I suspect, from the selection system.

Mr. Fernandez's rule for the width of guide-lines (*vide* his "Rough draft of Indian Sylviculture") is that they should be made equal to the height of the grass to be burned, plus

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three feet. This seems sound, but should be held to be only a general rule. In the Ranikhet Forest, they burn the lines in November without any guide-lines at all, and in Oudh they used formerly (I do not know if it is so now) to burn off the grass-lands direct from the edge of the forest without guide-lines, relying on the grass being thinner and damper under the trees than in the open. But such a procedure would often be quite impracticable. Again, it sometimes happens that the Range Officer and his scratch gang are not very clever at fire work, and cannot safely be allowed to burn off grass-lands from anything but broad guide-lines. An expert gang would be able to save both time and money in this matter.

Range Officers are apt to put off burning the grass-lands till late, so that they may burn cleanly, but this involves great risk to the forest, and I consider the best method will be to start the burning early, and let the fire do what it can, and then send the men back along the forest's edge, cutting, for some given breadth, all the unburnt grass, and burning it a few days later when dry. This will give us a protective line, made early in the season, and allow us to await the complete drying of the grass-lands before firing them finally.

In cutting guide-lines along the side of grass-lands, one is sometimes tempted to try and lead the forest to extend outwards into the open by leaving an edging of grass for the seed to fall into. But apart from the fact that the forest has probably not grown there for some good reason (as, for example, want of drainage), the gain is not worth the risk involved, and is the reverse of economical, since by clearing the guide-lines under the outer fringe of trees, we have much less grass to cut, and there is much less danger of the forest catching fire when the outer grass is being fired.

It is preferable in hilly country to have the outer line of the protected area along a ravine rather than a ridge, because it is always likely to be windy on a ridge, and therefore, risky when burning off the outer forest. The grass remains green longer in a ravine, but on the other hand, the fire will travel well up the slope when once started, and so the outer forest will be cleanly burnt off. Range Officers always try to wait as long as possible before burning the outer forest, so as to get rid of as many of the dead leaves as possible and burn cleanly. They are thereafter less harassed by alarms of fires approaching from the outer forest The reasoning is sound, but it entails much risk, and obliges us to have an outer line of fair breadth, cleared at the same time as the internal lines, and prevents our merely burning the outer forest from a guide-line.

Lines are sometimes cleared along roads, although there may be a broad river alongside. If such a road is only open

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to forest traffic, one ought to be able to so regulate the traffic as to avoid the necessity for a line, but when the road is a public right of way, the line may be unavoidable. With only forest traffic a strict enforcement of a few rules, such as are given below, should meet all requirements. If a fire occurs through non-compliance with these rules, the traffic should be rigidly stopped, either at once, or at some earlier date than was originally intended. No traffic should go on during the night, or if so, only in batches of carts or carrying animals accompanied by a fire-watcher, for while the rules are readily obeyed during the day, smoking will often be indulged in along the roads by night, when the exporters feel they will not be caught. Camping, cooking and smoking should only be permitted at large, cleared, camping-grounds. Since these camping-grounds get very quickly covered with cow-dung, *bhabar* grass, and all sorts of rubbish, they should be surrounded by an outer cleared zone, whereon no camping at all should be allowed. No grass, or otherwise inflammable huts, should be allowed within 300 feet of any fire-protected area. This broad distance is necessary, because of the sudden, strong sand or wind-storms that so often occur during the hot weather. It is almost inconceivable how callous people of all kinds, not omitting forest officials, are in this matter. Yet it is an *absolutely* essential point, and the rule should be maintained with great vigour. *All* grass sheds should be thrown down near any route which people may possibly take, as soon as the fire season begins.

Occasionally we have public roads passing through forests, along which large numbers of people, perfectly ignorant of fire-protection (as for example, pilgrims), travel in great numbers. In such a case it is often practically impossible to make all these people adhere rigidly to Fire-Conservancy rules, which, moreover, may lead to great friction, and even the firing of the forest in revenge. The only thing to do is to isolate the road by lines drawn well back, and sacrifice a strip of forest on either side of the road, burning it off, and permitting fires and smoking.

The question of whether or not to allow export of forest produce during the fire season, is an important one. I do not believe in stopping it rigidly throughout the forest, for it means that exporters will have far less time to remove their produce, and will therefore, either not buy at all, or only buy a little. The longer the working-season, the greater will be the revenue. All the large main routes should be left open, in my opinion, and efficiently patrolled to enforce the rules above given. Then the purchasers will arrange to do all their carriage from the forest to the main routes during the early part of the season, and the carriage along the main routes later on. In practice the rules are well obeyed, and

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the men who work at export become thoroughly accustomed to them, and know what is expected of them. If a fire does occur somewhere in the forest, all these men are at hand to help.

In some places there is a rule that a path of about 4 ft. should be made along every fire-line and repaired every year. This sounds theoretically very correct, but in practice it is wrong to make a hard-and-fast rule. The cost of these paths, with their repairs, mounts up to a vast sum, and is an annual and increasing burden. In the plains and easy hills perhaps, the paths should be so made that a pony can be ridden along them, and even then—on the flat at least—two feet gives enough room, but where the ground is such that a pony could not in any case be ridden, the nearest tracks will meet all purposes and will suffice for a pony to be led along, or for men to pass. It may often be well to cut a good path to start with, but thereafter it will be an unnecessary expense to fully repair it annually. All that is required is to see that it does not get choked and that slips are mended. The roots of grass should not in such cases be dug up. One often sees old paths in the forest, that have been abandoned for years, which one can still make use of, the roadway having got set and fixed firmly by the grass roots. This is one of the directions in which I would save money under Fire Conservancy, while spending it with no stinting hand on the up-keep of Fire Gangs.

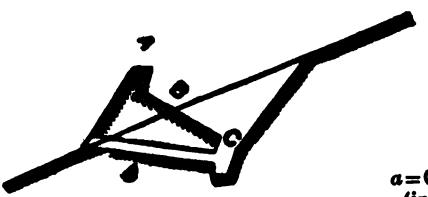
There is a great deal of work for an active officer in looking into the details of Fire Conservancy. A little stupidity on the part of Range Officers in the choice of look-out stations, may mean that a fire has become large before it is discovered, while on the other hand, a carefully-chosen look-out station may do away with the necessity for several others. The *Chaukis* should, also, be isolated from the closed forests. I once found that a Range Officer had set a *Chauki* (made completely of grass), with two men in it, in the middle of an immense sea of grass, nearly as high as the hut, and growing up against it. If the Forest Officer himself does not look into things, unintelligence of this kind will occur in many directions. At the same time, I consider that our men are in this matter of Fire Conservancy, quite exceptionally deserving of praise in many ways. But the obvious sometimes does not strike them, and the result may be disastrous.

The walls of a fire-watcher's hut should not be made of grass, but of stones, with or without mud mortar, or of mud only, while if the roof cannot be made of anything but grass or branches, it should be lined on its underside with planks, or slabs, and the cracks filled with mud to prevent ends of grass twigs or leaves from hanging down.

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It has been suggested that fire-lines should be cultivated. Possibly this might be feasible in a plains' forest, the tenant paying a nominal fee and living in a mud hut in the middle of the line. There could be no objection to his making a well. The difficulty would be the damage done to the crops by deer, yet one sees crops in forest clearings. A large extension of this system with the tenants, who would thus be "the men" of the Forest Department, might conceivably have very happy results, but would not be without its risks. With a system of annual renewal of permission to cultivate, any men of whom the Forest Officer had suspicions, could be turned out without the necessity for assigning a reason.

Lastly, I would like to air a theory I have long held, but never been able to experiment with, as to the way to deal with fires in Chir forest. When a fire occurs on a slope, one is generally unable to extinguish it either above or below, except at the ridge and the ravine, because it rushes fiercely up the hill, and counter-firing downwards would be too dangerous, while if one tries to counter-fire across the slope below the fire burning cones bound down the hill-side and light the forest behind. So that it is usually necessary to sacrifice the whole forest between the ridge and the ravine. But is has occurred to me that a roadway made along a contour half-way up the hill, sloping inwards, and with a continuous bank on its outer edge, might obviate both difficulties, and would also make a useful export line. The drainge of the road would fall into the inner ditch (which might advantageously be rather deep, as an extra means of catching the rolling cones), and find its way into scupper wells placed from point to point along the ditch. When the well gets full of water, the overflow would run off through culverts, which might take off at, say, a foot from the bottom of the well. A burning cone could thus neither pass over the road, because of the outer bank, nor under the road through a culvert, because it would be stopped at the bottom of a well.



a = Continuous bank, (inner edge vertical)
b = Sloped road surface. (exaggerated in drawing)
c = Ditch and well.
d = Drain.

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I hope these notes, which are founded on experience, may be of some use, and may lead others to add more notes of their own on this all-important subject. As Forest Conservancy grows in such countries as America and Canada, they will probably look to us for guidance, and it behoves us to have as thoroughly effective a system as possible to show. When India follows the example of all the great Forest Departments of Europe, and establishes a "Research Bureau," the varying systems at present in force throughout the country for carrying out the same class of work (as, for example, Fire Conservancy) will be examined and compared, and all will then be able to use the best methods, varied to suit local circumstances, that the united experience of the whole Department has been able to evolve. It would be difficult to say how much waste may thus be saved, and how much improvement all round may thus be effected. In the meanwhile, all we can do is to publish our own experiences, but it is a lame, spasmodic and incomplete method at the best.

'H. H.'

Forests and Sub-soil Waters.

M. Ed. Henry has a long study of the above question in the Revue des Eaux et Forêts, and points out some important facts which cannot be too widely known, especially in a country like India, possessing large areas, practically desert now, which it is also practically certain were not desert even so recently as the time of Alexander. Since his time, there has been a great extension of cultivation, and a corresponding diminution of forest areas. At any rate, it may be admitted, that if the present cultivated area is not greater than the greatest of olden times, the old cultivated area has become largely desert, and the present cultivation has been acquired at the expense of forests. At the present time "extension of cultivation" is advocated by all, except Forest Officers, without the least regard for consequences.

During the last fifty years, the question has stirred Europe to a sense of the gravity of the situation, and various important commissions have been engaged in gathering evidence, and experimenting as to the facts. In 1875, the Vienna Academy of Science took the matter up with reference to the Danube, perhaps the most important river of Europe. It was found that the mean level of the Elbe and the Oder had sunk by 17 inches; that of the Rhine and the Vistula by 24 inches; and that of the Danube by 55 inches. The Engineers unanimously

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agreed that the cause was to be found in the disforestments of the preceding fifty years. In 1880, a Russian Commission sat at Moscow to investigate the same subject. In 1894, M. Venukoff communicated a paper to the Paris Geographical Society. From 1830 to 1840, the question had been studied by M. Koeppen, who attributed the evil to disforestment. The Woronesh, on which Peter the Great of Russia built his first navy, is now a mere brook. The Oka is so shallow that boats habitually stick on sandbanks. In the Dneiper, a first class river, the depth of water is now reduced to 2 or 3 feet, and navigation has been abandoned. Even on the Volga the sandbanks have become such that steamers can only ply in a few reaches. The water it carries has diminished by about 825 millions of cubic feet. This is such a disaster, that even a Russian Minister could ignore it no longer, and a dozen specialists have been set to work to find a remedy. The whole of the fertile "black soil" region of Russia is affected, that is to say, some 240 millions of acres to the south of a line drawn through Kieff, Moscow and Kazan; and not only the Government, but the learned societies, the professions, and landowners of all classes are becoming exceedingly anxious. The Government has indeed issued orders prohibiting irregular exploitations, but it is feared that the harm is almost irretrievable and the orders too late.

This question is intimately connected with those of the circulation of sub-soil waters, of floods, and of the influence of forests thereon. The terrible floods of 1856 in France gave rise to immense discussions, the main outcome of which was a general opinion that forests must be preserved and bare hills re-clothed, and the result was the laws of 1860 and 1864, followed by 40 years of energetic forest work, which has already produced results whose remarkable success has caused the adoption of similar measures in other countries. For the last 25 years, no one has been found to dispute the beneficent action of forests on the flow of surface water. The matter of sub-soil water is, however, not so clearly settled, and the effect of forests on springs, wells, and the constant flow of brooks does not seem to be invariably the same. Generally, no doubt, a forest will maintain running springs and brooks, and will even create them on land formerly bare and dry. Nevertheless, there are a few cases in which an opposite action has been alleged, and the reasons for these exceptions are not clear. Even in India, it has been occasionally alleged that, the level of water in wells has been lowered by forests. There are two methods of solving this problem: (1) empirically, by cutting down, or planting, a forest as the case may be: (2) scientifically, by ascertaining the amount of rainfall and what becomes of it. The latter method appears to be rather difficult, so that the former is perhaps the more trustworthy. The expedition

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of M. Ototzky investigated the matter in the southern part of the "black soil" area of Russia, but the conditions here are peculiar. The surface and lower strata are practically level, with three alternating layers of water-bearing sands and impermeable clays, and the rainfall is very small, not exceeding 16 inches in the year, including snow, in some places only 8 inches. The conclusion reached was, that the forest lowered the water level by the yard or more. The same result has been ascertained in certain parts of Italy and France. In Italy and North Africa, Eucalyptus has been planted with success in malarious swamps. In the Roman Campagna, plantations of Eucalyptus on a wet soil were so effective, that the water level sank to 2 feet below the surface. One case, however, not mentioned by M. Henry, may be cited as a very doubtful success. A certain monastery was so feverish, that for some months of the year the monks had to desert the place. After the Eucalyptus had been established, the fever disappeared and the monks could remain there all the year round. But after a few years the locality became as unhealthy as ever. In the dunes of Gascony and in Algiers, the maritime pine has been used for the same purpose, and has dried up large areas of marshland and converted it into useful pasture. The Russian forests on the other hand, are oaks. In general terms, there is an impression that broad-leaved species are preservers of water, while resinous ones are marsh-dryers. The facts are, nevertheless, to some extent contradictory, and require further explanation.

There are five questions which may be considered separately.

1. Is there more rain in forest or on bare land? This question, formerly doubtful, is now considered settled. All observations agree in showing that, in French forests for instance, the rainfall in forests is about 10 to 20 per cent. more than outside, as shown by the records of the last thirty years. The same holds true for Russia, and doubtless for other countries. Even the aeronauts record that the temperature falls in passing over a forest. In a country like India, this reduction of general temperature, and of dryness in the air, is no doubtful benefit. But omelettes are not made without the breaking of eggs. This coolness of the air is derived from evaporation through the leaves, and finally from the soil. A certain amount of moisture is necessary to plant leaves as well as to plant roots, but in very varying degrees. Some crops require a saturated atmosphere, some a comparatively very dry one. It may, therefore, be a question whether in a given locality the (1) greater rainfall of forests, (2) greater storage power, (3) general cooling effect, (4) supply of forest produce, do or do not outweigh the lowering of the level of sub-soil water, if this occurs at all. There can be but few cases in which the issue is doubtful.

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2 How much of the rainfall actually gets through the canopy and into the soil? Canopies differ very much, but from many experiments it appears that an evergreen canopy may intercept as much as one half of the rainfall, while a deciduous canopy lets pass 65 to 91 per cent.

3. What are the quantities evaporated from a wooded and a bare soil, respectively? This question is practically unanswerable as it stands. Experiments, therefore, have been made on the evaporation from a sheet of water in the forest and outside. It is found that evaporation outside the forest is three times as great as inside. The effect of a covering of dead leaves on the soil is equal to that of a canopy, that is to say, that in a forest having both a canopy and a layer of dead leaves, the evaporation from the soil is only one-sixth of what it is outside. As above stated, however, these results are not exact, since the evaporation from non-saturated surfaces may not be the same as from saturated surfaces. It may, nevertheless, be accepted as perfectly certain, that evaporation from forest soils is far less than from open fields.

5. What quantity of water is absorbed by the roots? This question also is not capable of an exact reply. Experiments have been made by placing plants in pots, giving them a measured supply of water, deducting what has run through or been evaporated, and, considering the difference as consumed by the plant. Evidently, the results cannot be very reliable, especially as the same tree will consume very different quantities, according to the degree of saturation of the soil, in different years. It is agreed that the quantity is very considerable, but it appears certain that, for equal surfaces, forest crops evaporate much less than field crops: for instance, oaks consumed eight times less than lucerne, four times less than cabbages, three times less than wheat or turf. On the other hand, a forest transpires more than a field of bare soil. These results offer no kind of explanation of the fact that the Russian forests mentioned have certainly lowered the water level, so that this problem remains unsolved. Possibly, a canopy works at a faster rate than the young plants that can be experimented with. Probably the solution must be sought under more natural conditions, that is to say, with a dry soil and climate, and a very limited water-supply. The action complained of appears to be really due to the forest, since the water level under the fields is markedly higher than under the forest. A former Collector in Bombay proposed to clear all the forest on the drainage basin of the Tansa lake (about 10 miles long, Bombay-water supply), on the ground that grass would be more effective. To him may be commended the results of Ebermayer, who says that a forest distinctly contributes more water to springs, &c., than grass, bare soil, or crops. This may not always be the case on level plains with slight rainfall, but

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even there the supply of forest produce is well worth some sinking in the water level.

M. Henry concludes that wherever there is no flowing surface water, forests will probably lower the sub-soil water level, but that in hilly country and wherever there are running brooks, the contrary effect may be expected.

F. GLEADOW.

Insects attacking teak in Southern India.

In April last, you were good enough to print in your magazine a letter from me, describing the ravages of a caterpillar which defoliates the Teak trees on our plantations in Travancore.

Perfect insects were subsequently sent to Calcutta, and were identified as *Hyblæa puera*, a moth whose caterpillar has been reported from Berar, Assam, Lower Burma, Debra Dún and the North-West Provinces, as defoliating Teak in the same way. (See Indian Museum Notes III. 3. III.)

My object in writing to you now is to know if any remedies have been successfully tried elsewhere. Forest Officers who have had experience of this pest have doubtless tried remedies for its extermination, and I should greatly like to know what agents have been employed, and how far they have proved successful.

Our observations show that the caterpillar does not drop to the ground to change its skin, but that it remains on the tree where it was hatched from the egg until ready to pupate, when it spins a thread and drops to the ground. The painting of rings of tar or other sticky substances round the stems of the trees would, therefore, be useless, as the caterpillars do not apparently ascend the trees at all.

The sweeping up of all the fallen leaves and rubbish, and the burning of them after the insects had dropped to the ground, would probably diminish the amount of damage done at the next visitation, by destroying the moths before they had arrived at maturity, but fire is too dangerous an agent to employ in a plantation where there is much inflammable material lying about.

Passing through some of our plantations the other day, I was shown the first symptoms of an impending atttack. When the caterpillars are about to appear in numbers, the first indication of them is that the edges of the Teak leaves are seen to be folded over here and there for a length of about $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch, and for a depth of a $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch. On examining these folds, a minute caterpillar 1/12th inch long, and no thicker than a hair, may be seen concealed under each fold. The ragged appearance of the Teak leaves is, therefore, the first warning we get that an attack is about to commence.

T. F. BOURDILLON.

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II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

The Tannin value of Cassia auriculata Teak.

SIR,

I am not aware of any recently-published experiments showing the amount of tannin in the bark of *Cassia auriculata*, but from what is already known, we have sufficient evidence to answer in the affirmative the question at the head of Mr. Osmaston's letter in the "Indian Forester" for September.

About nine years ago I analyzed a sample of young Cassia bark collected in Mysore province, and it afforded 11·9 per cent. of tannin. Another specimen of the bark as used by tanners in the same province, evidently taken from older trees, yielded 20·5 per cent. More recently, a sample collected in another part of India gave 23 per cent., or double the amount contained in the young bark.

It is not exactly known at what age the maximum amount of astringent matter in the bark is reached, since conditions relating to climate and soil must also be taken into account in determining this point, but for all practical purposes, tannin constitutes about one-fifth the weight of ordinary bark taken from the stem of mature trees.

A very interesting series of experiments on samples of this bark, procured from different localities in India, is now being conducted in the Imperial Institute and it is hoped the investigation will throw additional light upon the conditions which affect the yield of tannin in this useful plant.

INDIAN MUSEUM, D. HOOPER.
Calcutta.

Conversion of irregular forest into coppice.

SIR,

I send a sample problem for solution. *Given*, a forest too mature to produce any useful coppice shoots, *required*, to turn it into a coppice of 20 years with standards, say 10 of two rotations, 6 of 3 rotations, and 3 of 4 rotations. I don't want anybody to reply that it would be best to clean, fell, and plant, unless he likes to go into figures, in which case I should be grateful. The problem is hardly applicable to Teak, because in its proper habitat, Teak will coppice up to about 200 years old, and *out* of its habitat it might be unwise to grow it. But if anyone would criticise the general solution here offered, from the point of view of other species, he would be conferring a favour on myself, and doubtless on others.

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CONVERSION

Of overmature irregular forest, to old, to give coppice shoots, into Coppice with Standards exploited at 20 years.

Year.	Operations.	Coupe No.	Age of crop.	Standards kept.	Cleanings in coupes.
1900	Seed felling and planting blanks	I to IV	Overmature	Half crop	
1		V to VIII	,,	,,	
2		IX to XII	,,	,,	
3		XIII to XVI	,,	,,	I to IV
4	,,	XVII to XX	,,	,,	V to VIII
1905	Secondary felling, cleaning & planting blanks.	I to IV	,,	Half remainder.	IX to XII
6		V to VIII	,,		XIII to XVI
7		IX to XII	,,	,,	XVII to XX
8		XIII to XVI	,,	,,	I to IV
9		XVII to XX	,,	,,	V to VIII
1910	Final felling, cleaning and planting blanks.	I to IV	,,	Half remainder i.e. ½th of original crop.	IX to XII
11		V to VIII	,,		XIII to XVI
12		IX to XII	,,		XVII to XX
13		XIII to XVI	,,		I to IV
14		XVII to XX	,,		V to VIII
1915	Cutting back	I and II	5 to 15	One half the old trees will be kept, and 100 or less promising seedlings added per acre. All the rest cut back.	IX to XII
16	,,	III and IV	6 to 16		XIII to XVI
17	,,	V and VI	6 to 16		XVII to XX
18	,,	VII and VIII	7 to 17		I and II
19	,,	IX and X	7 to 17		III and IV
20	,,	XI and XII	8 to 18		V and VI
21	,,	XIII	8 to 18		VII and VIII
22	,,	XIV	9 to 19		IX & X, I & II
23	,,	XV	10 to 20		IX & XII, III & IV
24	,,	XVI	11 to 21		XIII, V & VI
25	,,	XVII	11 to 21		XIV, VII & VIII
26	,,	XVIII	12 to 22		XV, IX & X
27	,,	XIX	13 to 23	,,	XVI, XI & XII
28	,,	XX	14 to 24	,,	XVII, XIII
1929	Coppice.	I	14		XVIII, XIV
30	,,	II	15		XIX, XV
31	,,	III	15		XX, XVI
32	,,	IV	16		XVII
33	,,	V	16		XVIII
34	,,	VI	17		XIX
35	,,	VII	17	Cut all the old trees. Keep 25 % of those last reserved and add 25 % others per acre and seedlings.	XX
36	,,	VIII	18		
37	,,	IX	18		
38	,,	X	19		
39	,,	XI	19		
1940	,,	XII	20		
41	,,	XIII	20		
42	,,	XIV	20		
43	,,	XV	20		
44	,,	XVI	20		
45	,,	XVII	20		
46	,,	XVIII	20		
47	,,	XIX	20		
48	,,	XX	20		
1949	,,	I	20		
50	,,	II	20		

(To be continued in our next.)*

*(*Not with my connivance*)—Hon. Ed.

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The provisional scheme covers three felling rotations of 5 years each, one of 14 years, and so far as the coppice is concerned, only a part, viz. 11 years, of the next rotation, which is a full-term one of 20 years. The coppice is thus fully constituted from 1940 onwards. The standards cannot be fully constituted till at least the full term of their exploitable age from 1900.

In 1915, there will surely be a few score of fine young seedlings, aged 10 or more, per acre. These will be carefully reserved, to the number of perhaps, 100 per acre.

In 1929, the new reserves will be about 24 years old, growing rapidly, and may be reduced in number to 25 or 30 per acre. About 25 new stems may be reserved per acre. Some of these may have to be coppice shoots, if good seedlings are scarce, as is likely.

In 1949, there are per acre, 25 stems 44 years old, and 25 new ones, 20 years old, per acre may be kept. Of the former, 15 may be cut.

In 1969, there will be 10 trees 64 years old, and 25 of 40 years old. To these may be added 25 new stems 20 years old, a number sufficient to allow all classes of the Reserve to be finally constituted; for instance, a standing stock per acre of 3 trees of 80 years, 6 of 60 years, and 10 of 40 years, just before each felling, thus:—

1969			1989			2009		
10 trees of 64 years, cut	7	=	3 of 84 years, cut	3	=	0		
25 40 ,,	19	=	6 of 60 ,,	3	=	3 of 80	years	
10 20 ,,	0	=	10 of 40 ,,	4	=	6 of 60	,,	
	add		10 of 20 ,,	0	=	10 of 40	,,	
				add		10 of 20	,,	

and so on for ever.

Thus, if 80 years be the oldest class, the Reserve is duly constituted from 1989. Thenceforward, the stock is completely constituted and the treatment ceases to vary.

The Revenue will fluctuate. In the fifth column above-given, "half the crop" is prescribed, but the actual fraction will depend on the species under treatment, the climate, and other conditions. Thus, for 5 years, from 1900, the revenue is derived from half of the original crop on four coupes. For the second five years it is one-fourth of the original crop. For 14 years from 1915, it consists of one-sixteenth of the old crop, plus one or two coupes of cutting back, less 100 young stems per acre. For 20 years from 1929, it will consist of the last one-sixteenth of the old crop, plus 75 stems per acre (these stems, being about 10 years old in the coupes of 1915, will

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now be about 24 years old), plus a coupe of coppice, increasing from 14 years old, less 25 young stems. For 20 years, from 1949, it consists of one coupe of 20 years old, less 25 stems per acre, plus 15 trees of 44 years old. For 20 years, from 1969, the revenue is a coupe of coppice aged 20, less 10 stems per acre, plus 7 trees of 64 years old, plus 19 trees of 40 years old. From 1989 on, the revenue is one coupe of 20 years old, less 10 stems, plus 3 trees of 80 years, plus 3 of 60 years, plus 4 of 40 years; and the producing stock, besides coppice, consists of 3 trees of 80 years old, 6 of 60, 10 of 40, before each coupe. Q. E. F.

The plan of reservation may be elucidated by means of the following form.

1929				1949				1969				1989			
No. of stems.	Age.	Cut.	Keep.	No. of stems.	Age.	Cut.	Keep.	No. of stems.	Age.	Cut.	Keep.	No. of stems.	Age.	Cut.	Keep.
100	24	75	25	25	44	15	10	10	64	7	3	3	84	3	0
...	...	...	...	...	20	...	25	25	40	19	6	6	60	3	3
...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	20	...	10	10	40	4	3

The cleanings entered in the statement may not have to be continued so long, or they may have to be a permanent institution, according to local circumstances. In each case, their cost will have to be set against the year's revenue.

F. GLEADOW.

A teak defoliator in the Central Provinces.

SIR,

You will no doubt publish the attached interesting extract from Mr. Hole's diary, in continuation of the extracts you have already published from Mr. R. C. Thompson's notes. Specimens of the caterpillars and pupæ have been sent to Calcutta for determination, so we shall soon know the name of the insect and more of its life history. The pest is spread all over the C. P. wherever you find Teak, and it certainly is more general than it was when I was here some years ago.

E. E. FERNANDEZ.

JUBBULPORE,
9th September 1898.

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Extracts from the diaries of R. S. Hole, Esq., Assistant Conservator of Forests.

It is remarkable that nearly all the Teak in this year's coupe, and in the surrounding Government Forest, have been more or less completely defoliated by a small caterpillar, presumably the same noticed by Mr. R. C. Thompson last year. As he states, only the parenchyma is attacked and the vascular tissue is left untouched. I have procured specimens of the caterpillar, and hope to get examples of the perfect insect. It is worthy of notice that single Teak trees on low-lying ground are absolutely free from the pest and remain perfectly green, whereas on the adjoining hill-side the whole of the trees are quite brown. This, I suppose, is probably due to the trees being practically pure in the latter case, but may also, I think, be partly due to the fact that breeding conditions are more favourable to the insect on the dry hill-sides and plateaux, than on the damper ground below, and also to food being more plentiful among the luxuriant growth on the low-lying rich soil, than on the hills.

The insect which I mentioned in a previous diary as devastating the foliage of the Teak in this district, has now pupated. It pupates on the backs of the leaves which have been eaten by the caterpillars, and which are now falling to the ground.

The caterpillars pupate on the leaves they have been feeding on, the pupa being kept in place on the back of the leaf, generally in a small depression, by threads woven over it. When the caterpillars are feeding on the leaves, they generally construct a lighter weft of similar threads over themselves, and it is very amusing to watch the caterpillars swinging their heads to and fro as they fix the thread to the right and left, alternately. The pupæ fall to the ground with the old Teak leaves. I fancy the eggs are laid on the twigs, branches or leaves of the Teak trees, as I have seen some very small caterpillars on the leaves which had evidently only just come out of the egg.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Rubber of Cryptostegia grandiflora.

In June 1895 a despatch from Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, to the Goverment of India, forwarded a copy of a letter received from the Director of the Royal Gardens, Kew, in which he asked to be supplied with a sample

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of the rubber from *Cryptostegia grandiflora* for the Kew Museum. Mr. Thiselton-Dyer's letter ran thus:—

"I have the honour to inform you that an extensive 'climbing plant (Cryptostegia grandiflora) cultivated in various 'parts of India, "abounds in milky caoutchouc juice which is 'like India rubber"

'A considerable effort was made to extend the cultivation 'of this plant, both in Madras and Bombay, about 12 years 'ago. A sample of the rubber, about 3¼ pounds in weight, sent 'to this country in August 1893, was examined by the Silver 'Town Rubber Company. It was reported to be "hardly equal 'to Ceara rubber from Brazil, although its general qualities 'were very encouraging."

'Fuller particulars are given in the Dictionary of the 'Economic Products of India, Vol. II, p. 625, and also in the 'several official Reports therein quoted.

'No specimen of this rubber exists in the Museum of 'Economic Botany at Kew. I would therefore suggest that the 'Government of India be moved to procure a sample of the Cryp-'tostegia rubber, about one pound in weight, to form a part of the 'collection of Indian products preserved at this establishment."

Accordingly, a specimen was procured (it is not said from where), and duly despatched to Kew. Mr. Thiselton-Dyer then had the rubber examined by Messrs. Hecht, Levis and Kahn, of 21 Mincing Lane, who reported it to be worth, if properly prepared and cleared, 2*s* 6*d* per pound or more. Mr. Thiselton-Dyer's Report was as follows:—

'In reference to Lord Reay's letter of June 17th, 1895 '(R. and S. 861), and previous correspondence on the subject of 'rubber, produced in India from *Cryptostegia grandiflora*, I have 'now the honour to inform you that a sample has been received 'at Kew, upon which I enclosed the brokers' report.

'I find from a letter from H. N. B. Erskine, Esq., Commis-'sioner in Sind, dated the 5th of January, 1882, that the plant is 'common in many parts of India and yields juice which gives 'from 50 to 70 per cent. of good India rubber.

'It further appears from the Proceedings of the Madras 'Government (11th January 1884, No. 44, Revenue) that samples 'were sent for report to the India rubber, Gutta Percha 'and Telegraph Works Company (Limited), who reported that '"it is of fair working quality."

'It follows from these facts that India possesses a widely-'dispersed plant which yields rubber of commercial value. 'The only question is whether it would pay the cost of collect-'ing if plantations were made."

Cryptostegia is not common in India or indigenous, and only occurs in gardens, so that it would have to be cultivated. It is a climbing plant, and its method of propagation is probably easy in good soil. But we are not told how it is tapped.

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Sleepers on the East Coast Railway.

A useful lesson is to be learnt from the experience of the East Coast Railway of certain sorts of wood for sleepers; *viz.*, that Some or Sumi (*Soymida febrifuga*), Pymma (*Lagerstrœmia hypoleuca*), and wood purporting to be teak from Johore, are all quite unsuitable for Indian use as sleepers. They all go utterly in four or five years. Probably to "Haskinize" them would greatly prolong their life. I saw some most excellent Sâl sleepers from the forests of Ganjam, and was told that their price in Berhampore was Rs. 4-8-0. Nothing better than these could possibly be wanted if there were only enough of them. The matter is one which might with advantage attract the attention of the Forest Department. I was told that Pyngadu sleepers from Burma cost Rs. 5-4-0. I here warn the East Coast Railway authorities, officially, that a Pyngadu sleeper ought always to sink, and that if a Burma sleeper, called Pyngadu by dishonest suppliers, is found to float, it is probably Kya Eng or other worthless timber, and certainly not Pyngadu. I was told that 25,000 Johore teak sleepers laid in 1895, are now rotting fast. I was told in 1892 that a considerable number of them had passed on to the southern part of the North-Western Railway, through a large Karachi firm. It would be interesting to know what their life was in a dry climate.

NOTE.—The above extract from the last Report of the East Coast Railway has been received from a Madras correspondent, to whom our thanks are due. We wonder what 'Johore teak' is, and we should be still more indebted to our correspondent if he would tell us something of the sleeper-supply of the East Coast Railway. We presume that both Ganjam Sâl and Godavari 'Pyngadu' have been largely used.

HON. ED.

IV.—REVIEWS.

The Kolhapur State Forest Report for 1896-97.

This Report, in manuscript, has been received through the kindness of the Forest Officer, an old Dehra Dun student, Mr. Hari Keshav Washikar, and is the first account we have seen of the work of Forest Conservancy in the State.

The area of forest in the State, under management, is about 391 square miles, a good deal of which contains Teak. We read under 'Cultural Operations' that arrangements are in progress to assist the best Teak saplings and coppice shoots

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by clearing away inferior species which dominate them, and by thinning out the coppice shoots, leaving only the best. A good deal of artificial cultivation is being done; for we read that over 40,000 tree seedlings were raised in nurseries and transplanted, while much seed was also dibbled in suitable places. The chief trees thus introduced were Teak, Sissu (probably *Dalbergia latifolia*), Sandal, Moha (probably *Bassia latifolia*), Hirda (*Terminalia Chebula*,) Mango, Eucalyptus and Bamboo.

The chief revenue of the State seems to be derived from the collection and sale of hirda fruit (myrabolam). The whole outturn was sold to a Bombay firm at Rs. 10-9-6 per 'khandy' (560 lbs.), which may be taken as Rs. 1-8-2 per maund. The collection was done departmentally and the carriage from the forests to the Railway Station at a contract rate of Rs. 2 per khandy. The *nett* surplus on hirda for the year was Rs. 42,873, but the expenditure was higher than usual during the year, because the collection was utilized as a famine work.

The full financial results of the year were :—

			Rs.
Revenue	...	...	1,10,856
Expenditure	...	...	73,207
	Surplus	.	37,649

but the surplus of the previous year was greater, amounting to Rs. 51,919.

We will conclude by quoting Mr. Washikar's remarks on the famine work done by the Kolhapur Forest Department.

"In view of the famine of the year, it will not be out 'of place to record here, briefly, what has been done by the 'Forest Department in the way of famine relief. The opening 'of the State forests for free grazing, the permission to remove 'karvi' and dead wood for sale, and the increasing of the 'wages of hirda collection have been referred to already. As 'regards the supply of fodder it might be stated here, that 'attempts were at first made by the Department to cut and 'store grass from the forests with a view to supply it to the 'ryots on moderate charges. But subsequently the State 'having stopped all export of fodder, the departmental storing 'of grass was found unnecessary. I might remark here, that 'the orders to stop export of fodder had a very salutary 'effect in keeping down the prices and preventing severe 'distress. The hirda business is a real blessing to the forest 'population, the significance of which will be fully realized 'when it is remembered that, during the year, about Rs. 35,000 'were distributed among them as wages for hirda collection, 'besides about Rs. 15,000 distributed among the village cart-men

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'for carrying the same to Kolhapur. The specially increased 'rate of hirda collection, which afforded most suitable kind of 'relief to the forest people, cost the State Rs. 7,225 in addition 'to the usual charges. The forest tribes being already accus- 'tomed to eat the edible roots and fruits from the forests 'even in ordinary times, this source proved of great use to 'them as supplementary food, which fact becomes at once 'evident when one enters a forest, especially near the ghâts, 'where pits made by the people in digging for edible roots 'are to be seen in many places. Hutting materials and fuel 'were also supplied to the relief workers in the vicinity of 'the forests, free of charge. The Dhavads or native iron- 'mongers of Aini in the Bhudargad Petta, were allowed to 'take fuel for carrying on their trade without paying the 'usual fees.

'Recovery of arrears due by the ryots of several villages 'in the Panhala Petta for damage done to forests in former 'years, was suspended for one year. And lastly, a sum of 'Rs. 14,000 has been lately sanctioned by H. H. the Chatrapati 'Maharaja for the erection of boundary cairns around 'Forest reserves with a view to open a suitable relief work 'for the forest people near their homes, and this work has 'been undertaken during the current year in the Panhala 'Petta. On the whole, it will be seen, that, liberal as our 'forest rules are, during the year, every attempt was made by 'the Department to make the forests a real blessing to the 'people, which is quite in accordance with the spirit of the 'Resolution recently passed by the Government of India."

New York State College of Forestry.

A brief abstract of the "announcement" which deals with the foundation of the above College, its aims, and the course of study to be pursued, should be of interest to all Forest Officers in this country, through whatever school they may have passed; as showing what the ideal of a forest school is at the end of the century in America when aided by the science of enthusiasts in the cause of American forestry such as Drs. Fernow and Roth. The College has, we read, been established as a Department in the Cornell University by an Act of the State Legislature of April 1898. While a State Institution, the College is administered by the Trustees of Cornell University, to which the students have all the advantages of belonging, and at which all scholastic work will be done. Further,

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"In the same Act, provisions were also made to establish a demon-'stration forest of not more than 30,000 acres in the Adiron-'dacks, to be purchased out of the funds set aside for 'the Forest Preserve Board, to become the property of Cornell 'University for the term of 30 years, and to be used for 'demonstrations of practical forestry. The sum of $ 10,000 'has been appropriated for the organization and maintenance 'of the 'College' forest. By the same Act, the Commission 'of Fisheries, Game and Forests is ordered to furnish the 'necessary guards and to protect the property." The administration of such a large area of forest as a model, provided for by the Act (a copy of which accompanies the pamphlet), with all the usual forest operations such as may be required "in the interests of the State and the advancement of the 'science of forestry," together with a practical exposition of financial results, which cannot be arranged on smaller experimental areas, will ensure a thorough demonstration of practical forestry. The preparation of maps is also authorized, where necessary. Subject only to the control exercised by the Trustees of the University, the land purchased is to be regarded as a part of the forest preserve under the fish, game and forest law, but "at the expiration of 30 years, 'all the lands purchased by the University and paid for by 'the State, shall be conveyed to the people of the State of 'New York, without further price, and become a part of the 'forest preserve." The various portions of the 30,000 acres will be bought from time to time (we are not told how much has already been acquired), and we may hope that land of both better and worse kinds will be obtained, and without perhaps exposing our ignorance, that political considerations will interfere as little as possible in its acquisition.

With reference to the objects of the institution of the College, which as regards the science of forestry and forests of various kinds, *i. e.*, whether for commercial, climatic or other considerations, are of the usual nature, we learn with interest that "the annual consumption of wood materials in the United 'States is (now) estimated at over 20,000,000,000 cubic feet, 'valued when shaped for use in the arts, at not less than '$ 1,000,000,000, which so far has been supplied from the virgin 'forest resources of the country." There are then now, practically adverse to the introduction of scientific forestry which must reduce present supply and present profits, the enormous demand for material, interests involved, supply at low rates (we believe less than 2*d* per cubic foot on the average), and also waste of material due to recklessness and from want of knowledge of the arts of forestry. Time and necessity alone will bring, and are even now bringing, about a change in the latter, and much can be done by provision for the teaching and practice of forestry to stem the tide of a commer-

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cialism selfish to the requirements of posterity. We are glad to see, therefore, that the instruction contemplated to be given, is on the broadest outlines, and for three different classes of students, and for the public, namely; (1) for future managers of the New York State forest property, which will be chiefly in the Adirondacks, and of other States which are also entering upon a policy of rational management, as well as for managers to "owners of large areas of timberland, 'manufacturers of lumber, of wood-pulp and others," a three-years' or four-years' course. (2) For rangers, logging bosses, wood workers and others, a short course of one year "which may 'be given at other points than the University; in short summer 'or winter courses as needful for the successful inauguration of 'forestry practice, in the country, as the education of fully equipped 'forest managers." (3) For "other classes of students, who, as 'a matter of general education, need to have a cursory acquain-'tance with the various aspects of the subject—students of 'political economy, of engineering, etc., and prospective owners 'of woodlands, farmers and others," a one-term course of two hours per week. (4) The College will also exert itself in supplementing popular education on the subject."

We welcome the last two and hope that they may be made the subject of special efforts, believing that while the State may be able to do a great deal, popular education in such a country as the United States can do more and create a demand for foresters and the treatment of forests by rational methods. National sympathy is required, and by popularizing the subject, private owners may also be expected to learn the advantages of, and to employ, technical forest management.

The openings for foresters are treated of in the announcement. Apart from private owners and commercial speculations which may require professional men, as well as the possibility of chairs of forestry being established at other colleges, "the 'United States Government has" we are told, "reserved some 'thirty million acres of the public timberlands as forest reserva-'tions and an administration of the same has been ordered, which, 'sooner or later, will require professional advice," and besides other States having Forestry Commissions, "the State of New 'York (alone) owns over one million acres of forest property 'which is to be gradually increased by purchase, and will 'undoubtedly require a technical forest management."

Lastly, we may make a few notes on the preliminary examinations and courses of instruction proposed. We may confess at once that after reading through the proposals for the latter, which may be termed "stiff all through," and the names of the President and thirty-two professors and instructors who will be engaged in the scholastic work, we reflected with no small amount of relief that our School and College days are over.

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For the special students, class (I), the Entrance examination is divided into two parts; namely, the general Entrance examination for admission to the University, in which we note that the subject, "Physiology and Hygiene" is compulsory, and the advanced examination for admission to the course in the College of Forestry in which advanced German, advanced French or Latin, and advanced Mathematics are required. In the College courses of instruction, we should be inclined to say that too many subjects in too many parts are proposed to be taught, when for instance we read that eight different courses of geology are proposed. In all, if we read aright, as at English Universities, there are about fifteen hours' fundamental, and four hours' supplementary or elective work per week; and that excursions and laboratory work only count one hour for every two-and-a-half or three actually spent. Botany is taught in the first three years, Forestry in the last two only; thus students who only take the three-years' course, lose a large part of the latter. We note that an average of two hours per week is to be spent during each of the last seven terms on political economy; while the subject of pisciculture and venery is also taught. A thesis will be required from every student in his fourth year, and it is noted that there is an ample field for graduate and research work which will be encouraged. We see no mention of the teaching of accounts. A knowledge of these is certainly required in the work of a forest officer. In geology, we note that one week's practical work is to be done in the field; in addition we would say, regarding this and the origin and nature of soils, the geology of soils, the way in which they take their origin from certain formations of rock, and the kind of soil formed from the latter, is, for a forest officer, far more important than knowing the names of fossils; similarly with the knowledge of how to read a geological map and the way in which strata lie. As regards forest protection, an account of fire conservancy as it will be taught and practised, will be of interest to forest officers of this country. In the summer courses, at least one season will be spent in the Adirondacks, and arrangements will be made to inspect other forest conditions in other years. Short excursions will frequently be undertaken.

The expenses of the course are put down at about $ 375 for the first two, and $ 450, inclusive of long excursions, for the last two years.

The degree for the successful four-years' students is "Bachelor in Science of Forestry," and for similar three-years' men, "Forester."

We wish the New York State College of Forestry every success both in its teaching and its results, large and small.

YOUNG FORESTER.

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Athletic Sports at the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun.

This annual fixture was brought off on the 7th and 8th October under favourable circumstances, the entries being numerous and the performances fairly good. There were ten events, as follows :—

1. Flat race, 100 yards, for native students. This was won by J. D'Rozario in 11½ seconds, Kalicharan being second.

2. Flat race, 100 yards, open to the whole School. This was won by C. H. Hearsey, with F. Gagliardi only a foot behind. It was a good race, but unfortunately the time was not obtained, the timekeeper's attention being distracted by native spectators coming too close.

3. Throwing the cricket ball. The winning performance was that of F. Edwards, 271 ft., but he threw 287 the previous day in the trials. A. Narsappaya came second with 253 ft.

4. Hurdle race, 120 yards, over 10 flights, for native students, was won by K. Govinda Menon in 20 2/5 seconds, Kalicharan being second. This also was a good race and gave rise to some excitement among the spectators.

5. High jump. This was won in good style by D. A. Allan with 5 ft. He has done 5 ft. 1 inch in practice. Govinda Menon was second with a neat 4 ft. 10 inches.

6. Hurdle race, 120 yards, over 10 flights, open to the whole School. This fell to D. A. Allan in 17 4/5 seconds, the runners up being C. H. Hearsey and F. B. Powell

7. Long jump. This also went to D. A. Allan with 16 ft. 10 inches, against his 17 ft. 1 inch in the trials. Gagliardi only did 15 ft. 5 inches against his 16 ft. in the trials. Hearsey's best, also in the trials, was 15 ft. 8 inches. The second prize went to J. D'Rozario at 15 ft. 10 inches. Govinda Menon came very close with 15 ft. 9 inches. D'Rozario also had covered 16 ft. in the trials.

8. Flat race, 100 yards, for School and Forest servants. This was won by Mantbarsai, the Vernacular Instructor's Chaprassi, in 13 seconds, the runners up being Jawaru and Ramkishen.

9. Flat race, half mile. This was carried off by C. H. Hearsey in 2 min. 29 secs. The time is not fast, but the course is by no means so level or smooth as it might be. In fact it is simply a common grass maidan, quite uneven and untended in any way.

10. Tug of War, Seniors *V* Juniors. It was the general opinion that the Seniors would win, as they seemed the bigger

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team, but the Juniors had the more energy and pulled them over twice, though not without difficulty. This is always a most popular event, causing wild excitement and a babel of encouraging shouts.

Mrs. Gradon then very kindly distributed the prizes, with a few appropriate words of congratulation to the winners. The Deputy Director, in the absence of the Director, endeavoured to make a short speech, and the proceedings closed with cheers for everybody concerned. Dehra society with pretty frocks and prettier faces lent the proceedings an attractiveness and charm that would otherwise have been wanting, and the Band of the 2nd P. W. O. Gurkhas, under the able bâton of Mr. Currie, conferred a great obligation on the School and spectators alike by its rendering of an excellent programme. The police arrangements were efficiently carried out, so that all things combined it is hoped, to make the meeting a pleasant one to those who attended.

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

Pineapple Fibre.

We see from Agricultural Ledger, 1898, No. 11, that the cultivation of pineapple as a fibre-producing plant has been taken up by the Hon. Mr. J. Buckingham, C. I. E., at Amguri, Assam. Specimens of fibre prepared by him have been sent to the Imperial Institute, and reported well of. The fibre is said to nearly resemble flax and to be suitable for spinning into fine twine, and if properly softened, for textile purposes. Its value is set down as from £ 20 to £ 25 per ton. We are not told how the fibre has been prepared from the leaf.

Cigar Boxes.

In the manufacture of cigar boxes three kinds of lumber are used, namely :—Cedar, veneered cedar, and imitation cedar.

There are three kinds of cedar, namely, Spanish cedar, Mexican cedar, and South American cedar.

The first named is considered the best, because it retains the flavour of the cigar. Some cigar manufacturers claim that it improves the flavour. The reason for this is that this lumber

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grows in the same localities as the Havana tobacco. Therefore, a box made of this lumber is the only one in which a clear Havana cigar should be packed. No cedar grows in the United States that could be used for cigar boxes. A cedar growing in Florida has been tried, but was not satisfactory in any particular. All this lumber is imported in logs and shipped to New York City, where it is cut up ready for use. Seven-eighths of the cedar lumber used in the United States is shipped from New York. On account of the present crisis in Cuba, it is almost impossible to obtain Spanish cedar at any price.

The South American and Mexican cedar does not have as good a flavour, and contains a gum or sap which often ruins the attractive labels on cigar boxes. This lumber is now mostly used because no other can be had at present.

The price of cedar lumber is about the same as it was thirty years ago, while the price on boxes since then has been cut one-half, although the price now is higher than it has been in three or four years, due to the war in Cuba.

Almost any kind of lumber can be used for making veneered cedar, of which there is not as much used as genuine cedar. A great many of the cigar box makers use this lumber for frames, and genuine cedar for tops and bottoms. This makes a cheaper box and answers the purpose almost as well. In such a box medium grade cigars are packed.

Imitation cigar box lumber is made of poplar, elm, bass, and gum wood, so as to imitate the appearance of Spanish cedar. On account of the high price and scarcity of Spanish cedar more of this lumber is used than any other.

The poplar imitation gives the best satisfaction, while the bass wood makes a better imitation, but there is a strong objection to its odour. Elm wood also makes a good imitation, but on account of its being so hard it is not used so extensively.—(*The Barrel and Box and Timber Trades' Journal.*)

The Hasselmann method of preserving Railway Sleepers.

A new process for preserving railway sleepers is the Hasselmann method, which has been adopted on several Bavarian railways, and is said to be perfectly effectual and cheaper than the processes involving the use of tar-oils. The sleepers are first boiled in a solution of the sulphates of iron and aluminium, and then in a lime bath under pressure. All putrefactive bacteria present are, of course, destroyed,

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and the cellulose of the wood becomes thoroughly impregnated with iron and alumina, which protect it from weather and damp and the other influences which bring about the rotting of wood.—(*Timber Trades' Journal.*)

A Miraculous Palm Tree.

The most interesting passage in his article is that in which he describes the marvellous tree, which grows like a weed in Brazil, but the like of which is unknown in any other part of the world. It is the carnahuba palm *(Copernicia cerifera)*, which grows uncultivated in the States of Parahiba, Ceara, Rio Grande do Norte, Piauhi, and some of the neighbouring States. The descriptions given of it to me seem incredible. Perhaps in no other region is a tree to be found that can be employed for such varied and useful purposes. It resists intense and protracted droughts, and is always green and vigorous. Its roots produce the same medicinal effects as sarsaparilla. Its stem affords strong, light fibres, which acquire a beautiful lustre, and serves also fo joists, rafters, and other building materials, as well as for stakes for fences. From parts of the tree wine and vinegar are made. It yields also a saccharine substance, as well as a starch resembling sago. In periods of famine, caused by protracted droughts, the nutritious substances obtained from it are of immense benefit to the poorer classes. Its fruit is used for feeding cattle. The pulp has an agreeable taste; and the nut, which is oleaginous and emulsive, is sometimes used as a substitute for coffee. Of the wood of the stem musical instruments, water-tubes and pumps are made. The pith is an excellent substitute for cork. From the stem a white liquid, similar to the milk of the cocoanut, and a flour resembling maizena may be extracted. Of the straw, hats, baskets, brooms, and mats are made. A considerable quantity of this straw is shipped to Europe; and a part of it returns to Brazil manufactured into hats. The straw is also used for thatching houses. Moreover, salt is extracted from it, and likewise an alkali used in the manufacture of common soap. But from an industrial and commercial point of view, the most valuable product of the carnahuba tree is the wax obtained from its leaves.

Was there ever such a tree described before? There are many British colonies whose climate is not unlike that of the Brazilian States in which the carnahuba palm flourishes. It might be well worth Mr. Chamberlain's attention to conduct experiments to ascertain whether or not this marvellous tree could not be naturalized in our hotter colonies, which are, at

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present, in need of some help from without.—(*Extract from Review of Reviews of an article in the Forum for March, by* HON. T. L. THOMPSON, *late United States Minister to Brazil.*)

The Best period to Fell Trees.

To determine whether a trunk was hewn in winter or in summer is of the greatest importance to buyers of timber, especially as regards building timber, since it is well known that timber cut down in summer represents a lower value than that felled in winter. Timber hewn during the resting period, *i. e.*, between October and April, contains in its cells numerous starch particles which cannot be found in wood cut down in summer. Owing to this presence of starch the wood is coarse and impenetrable, since the starch closes the pores. For this reason, winter-hewn timber is exclusively employed for staves, because, with staves from summer-hewn wood, the contents of the barrels are subject to evaporation through the pores. The starch contained in the winter wood is given a violet colour by iodine. Hence if the timber to be examined is coated with an iodine solution, and the surface of the felling side appears yellow, it may be assumed with certainty that the respective tree was cut down in summer. The light yellow lines are the moisture rays, while cells, tissue, and wood fibres simply take on a yellow colouring. In the case of winter-hewn timber, the amylaceous rays form much darker, ink-coloured, black stripes on the yellow ground.—(*Allgemeine Tischler Zeitung and Public Opinion.*)

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

4th October 1898.

EAST INDIA TEAK.—The deliveries for the first nine months of this year amount to 14,152 loads against 13,157 loads for the same period of 1897. In September this year they have been 1,545 loads, and in September, 1897, they were 1,289 loads. There is no alteration in the London market, which remains quietly firm at previous quotations. Prospects for future supplies, afloat or to be shipped, are assured.

ROSEWOOD.—EAST INDIA.—Is in steady demand at good prices.

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SATINWOOD.—EAST INDIA.—Good prices can be made for finely figured logs, but plain wood is not easily sold.

EBONY.—EAST INDIA.—Small parcels of large, sound wood, of good colour, would realize fair prices.

Price Current.

Indian Teak, per	load ...	... £ 10 10s.	to £ 15 10s.
Rosewood ,,	ton ...	... £ 9	to £ 10
Satinwood ,,	sq. foot	... 5 *d.*	to 9 *d.*
Ebony ,,	ton ...	... £ 6	to £ 8

Denny, Mott and Dickson's Wood Market Report.

LONDON, 1ST OCTOBER, 1898.

TEAK.—The landings in the London Docks last month aggregated 689 loads of logs and planks as against 1,455 loads for the corresponding month of last year. The deliveries into consumption were 1,403 loads as against 1,288 loads in September, 1897. The stocks in London Docks analyse as follows :—

8,636	Loads of Logs,	as against	10,505	Loads at	the same date	last year.
3,48	,, Planks	,,	2,415	,,	,,	,,
33	,, Blocks	,,	15	,,	,,	,,
Total 12,860	Loads		12,935	Loads	,,	,,

The figures for the past nine months show a *decrease* of fully 9 per cent. in the landings at the London Docks, and an *increase* of 8½ per cent. in the deliveries as compared with the landings and deliveries for the same period of last year ; the logs and planks for the respective periods showing as follows :—

12,602 Loads landed at London Docks from 1st January to 30th September, 1898, against 13,902 Loads for the same period in 1897.

13,936 Loads delivered from the London Docks from 1st January, 1898, against 12,839 Loads for the same period last year.

The increase in the deliveries from London is more significant than appears at first glance, seeing that, unlike last year, the important supplies to H. M's. Admiralty have not been drawn from London stocks.

The last nine months have developed an unusually good business in floating cargoes, as apart from landed stocks ; this fact, on the top of the good retail demand at the outports, and the active enquiry for the Continent, point to last year's very full consumption of some 70,000 loads as likely to be exceeded by that of the present year, while the supplies for 1898 promise to show an appreciable shortage on those for 1897. These considerations, taken in conjunction with the high cost of teak of good quality at

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the shipping ports, indicate a further rise in prices, and provided the widespread European demand for naval purposes continues, those who contract well forward for their next year's likely needs should be in a better position than those who wait upon events and buy only "from hand to mouth."

Business during September did not show the returning animation which had been hoped for. The prolonged fine weather perhaps caused the holiday influence to hold ground for longer than usual; but the want of activity is now causing some misgiving, and weakening the confident tone that has hitherto dominated the timber trade.

MARKET RATES OF PRODUCE.

Tropical Agriculturist. October, 1898.

Cardamoms	per lb.	3s.	to	3s. 2d.
Cutch	,, cwt.	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic	,, ,,	27s. 6d.	to	35s.
,, Kino	,, ,,	10s.		
India rubber, Assam	,, lb.	2s. 10d.	to	3s. 3½d.
,, Burma	,, ,,	2s. 9d.	to	3s. 3½d.
Myrabolams, Madras	,, cwt.	5s.	to	5s. 3d.
,, Bombay	,, ,,	4s. 3d.	to	9s.
,, Jubbulpore	,, ,,	4s. 6d.	to	8s.
,, Bengal	,, ,,	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	,, ,,	8s.	to	10s.
Oil, Lemon Grass	,, lb.	3½ d.		
Orchella, Ceylon	,, cwt.	10s.	to	12s. 6d.
Sandalwood, Logs	,, ton	£30	to	£50.
,, Chips	,, ,,	£4	to	£8.
Sapanwood	,, ,,	£4	to	£5.
Seedlac	,, cwt.	60s.	to	68s.
Tamarind	,, ,,	4s.	to	6s.

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EDITED BY

J. S. GAMBLE, M. A., F. L. S.,

CONSERVATOR OF FORESTS, AND DIRECTOR OF THE FOREST SCHOOL, DEHRA DÚN

DECEMBER, 1898.

MUSSOORIE:

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THE

INDIAN FORESTER.

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The most Suitable Method of Treatment to apply to Sal.

It is now a considerable time since Improvement Fellings in Sâl forests were first introduced, and already some of the original Working Schemes are approaching the period of revision. It, therefore, behoves us to begin to consider the effect of these fellings, and whether or not we can start to work on regular methods of treatment.

Improvement Fellings were introduced in a sort of despair, and admittedly as a temporary measure; it was considered that the forests were too ruined, or too irregular, to satisfactorily allow of an immediate application of regular methods, and it was therefore proposed that a preliminary run through with Improvement Fellings should be made to allow of the forests growing up a little under protection, and in order to remove, as far as circumstances would admit, the old bad stuff on the ground. It is possible, Improvements Fellings have sometimes been prescribed for forests which might have been at once put under regular treatment, but even with these, if the fellings have been cautiously made, there has probably been a gain. For one thing, it was safer to make Improvement Fellings incorrectly, than it would have been to make errors in a regular method. There have often been bad mistakes in the markings during these early years of Working Plans, but we can but acquire our experience, and as year by year our Range Officers learn their work, things must improve. No doubt the time during which we have been training our Range Officers has been less harmfully passed with Improvement Fellings, than had we had regular systems to attempt to apply.

But Improvement Fellings have, as has been pointed out – by Mr. Hearle, I think—one grave danger; *they prescribe no volume check.* The irregular condition of the forests, and especially the

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irregular growth of the individual trees, would probably have rendered any attempt to fix a volume check impracticable. Some may, indeed, argue that the material in the forests was so bad that really the sooner we removed it the better, provided only we were careful to establish in its stead a re-growth on the ground, of a better-grown class of trees, and it might be added that we should then be arranging to have the annual increment put on in its right, instead of in a wrong, place, on straight, sound trees, instead of on crooked, hollow ones. But, if we followed out this principle logically, we should at once work for a re-growth throughout the area, and in removing the old material, go only as slowly as the difficulty of selling it, or of getting up a re-growth, obliged us. But Sâl is very prolific, and a re-growth of young trees not difficult to establish, while the cases where Sâl forest has been cleared for cultivation show the insatiability of the market. We should then rapidly acquire a very valuable *potential* property, but our revenue would fall with a violent jerk for a long period, until the new young forest had grown up, and then it would be nearly of an age throughout, which would be inconvenient.

This omission is a very great danger undoubtedly, but it is not the only risk of Improvement Fellings. The rotations adopted are necessarily small—10, 15, or 20 years—and the result is something like that of Selection, namely, an interruption of the canopy in a great number of places *throughout* the Working section. Even if (in Selection) all the holes in the upper canopy contain, down below, a crop of seedlings, still side-light can get in, and in consequence there is a growth of grass and weeds. A French Forest Officer lately pointed out to the writer that the Selection method encouraged the growth of brambles in Beech forests. And this will mean that the difficulties of fire-protection will extend to the whole area of the Working section.

Prudence, therefore, seems to point to our losing no time, wherever the nature of the forest growth will at all admit of it, in introducing some regular system of treatment. This will give us a regularity of outturn, and a concentration of work and re-generation within a limited (and so more easily protected) area, while the remainder will grow up thickly, and both guard itself against dangerous fires and give to the soil the great benefit of a long period of complete cover.

If we have seed-bearers enough to start with and a sufficiency of trees throughout which will bear seed by the time the regeneration felling reaches them, a regular high forest system can be introduced. Shortly, we should begin in the oldest part with our regeneration fellings, and deal with the remainder by very cautious thinnings, our great aim, in these parts, being to produce a very close overhead cover till the approach of the regeneration cuttings.

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In at once applying a regular method to an irregular forest we shall meet with some inconveniences. (These would not apply to the same extent to the Selection method, but, as noted hereafter, there are certain objections to Selection). Firstly, our full-aged trees will not be only in the periodic Block about to be regenerated, but throughout the Working Circle. In the later periodic Blocks these older trees will have to be removed in the thinnings, which will mean that the thinnings will assume the appearance of Selection in greater or less degree as the full-aged trees are more or less numerous. This will, no doubt, be something of a drawback, but will cure itself in time. In the next place our first periodic Block will contain, besides full-aged trees, younger trees of many different ages, whether well or badly grown. To fell these to make room for a new young growth would be a little wasteful. In the first place, however, we need not regret the removal of these younger trees when defective, and the number of such trees will be sure to be great. Then the smallest class (say saplings as opposed to poles) need not be touched, but can be included in the future stock. Thus, our difficulties will be considerably reduced, and if we adopt the Group method, which has a long periodic Block (say one of 40 years), we can arrange to leave well-grown poles to grow at least till the end of the period. Thereafter isolated poles could still be left to grow on, and fall in the thinnings. *Groups* of tall poles of a similar age should not, we think, be left to grow on, because they would all become full-aged at roughly the same time, and consequently in coming away would leave a gap. We should in fact have to compromise to some extent in the introduction of a regular method, and be content to reach complete regularity by degrees.

Although Sâl would do admirably under coppice with standards, or even simple coppice, yet it is essentially a timber tree, and because of its strength, one especially in demand in longsawn pieces. Sâl poles are valuable, but longsawn Sâl beams greatly more so, and as for fuel it is relatively worthless, and can, moreover, be obtained to excess otherwise in the forest. Then, coppice means great exposure of the soil at frequent intervals, which, if so detrimental in temperate and humid Europe, is surely ten times more so in torrid India. Evidently, then, Sâl should be treated as high forest, unless there is some very special local reason against it. For private proprietors coppice may perhaps, however, be in place (*vide* Mr. Fisher's article at p. 151, Vol. X of the *Indian Forester*). The question then arises, under which system of high forest should it be worked? For the reasons which follow, I am of opinion that the Group method will be the best, but a Group method approaching as nearly as we can get it to the Uniform method (Shelterwood Compartment System of Schlich).

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The chief objection to Selection has been already stated above; it connotes a dangerous state of things from the point of view of fire throughout the forest. Then there are the various reasons (unnecessary to recapitulate here) advanced by European Foresters for preferring the Uniform system to that of Selection, and relegating the latter to forests of protection. In addition, it is said that with Selection the young trees very often have to undergo a more or less lengthy period of suppression. I will add one more objection, which I have noted in Beech woods, but have never seen in any Manual, and which I think will apply to Sâl, namely, that the system produces crooked trees, which have struggled round torwards the opening from under the cover of the trees surrounding the holes made for regeneration purposes in the upper leaf-canopy, and fought their way up against those growing more directly under the light. As a rule, and theoretically, the latter should no doubt grow up quicker than the former, but actually we constantly find trees which have twisted round and worked their way into the intervals in the canopy.

The objections to the Uniform method are that in India the sudden and almost complete uncovering of the soil over large areas (as is done in regeneration fellings under this method) leads to very rapid degeneration of the soil, to an appalling growth of grass, and to great risk from fire, frost and drought. I am not prepared to say that Sâl seedlings will not, in time, overcome this heavy grass, and they will often, no doubt, grow through grass vigorously when uncovered, if already present, but the risk of heavy grass is very great, and the success of regeneration in it will of course be open to doubt, while the too liberal opening out of the cover may bring on the insuperable difficulty of frost. But the Uniform method has this advantage, that it concentrates its regenerative operations within the smallest possible space, the remaining periodic Blocks growing up as self-protected, long-boled timber. Doubtless most of us can recollect areas of straight, high Sâl forest, with nothing but leaves on the ground, resembling a periodic Block of a regular forest soon to come under regeneration; and nothing is commoner than Sâl poles growing in masses like a bit of forest just entering the period succeeding regeneration under the Uniform system. Of the former, the most striking example the writer knows is (or was) the Lakhman Mandi Block of the Kumaon Division (N-W. P.), where the trees were 90 feet high, with straight, clear, very long boles, and restricted, but well-shaped crowns, while on the soil was nothing but *Clerodendron* and thin Gauj (*Millettia*) stems, these latter being quite harmless and unable to make any way, though doubtless they would start to grow immediately if the light were let in.

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The regeneration area of a Uniform forest will be perhaps one-sixth or one-seventh of the total area of working section, while that of a Group forest will be from one-third to one-half, which is a great disadvantage. Still it is not so much of a disadvantage as those which apply to the Uniform method, and the assured re-growth of the Group system is of incalculable value.

But it is not unlikely that the very prolific nature of Sâl, and its love of light when once established, will allow, in practice, of our working the Group method much on the lines of the Uniform system, more especially in a forest which, having passed through a rotation of Improvement fellings, has already a well-distributed stock of seedlings. The fact that Sâl will germinate in moderate shade, will bear this shade for some time, and, when released, will go ahead, will generally result in our having seedlings, more or less, in all parts of the Block, and allow us in consequence a number of points to choose from for our fellings. Thus, when we come to apply the Group method of regeneration, we shall probably be able to begin by working more heavily in one-half of the periodic Block, and obtain the amount of material (or number of trees) ordered to be annually removed, from this half, and then gradually work, with a rough regularity, from this side of the Block across to the other. While the fellings are proceeding more heavily in the one-half of the Block, parts of the other will grow up closely enough to render its fire-protection less difficult than it would otherwise be. Thus, with a period of, say, 40 years, the earlier years would see us working, as far as circumstances permitted, in one-half of the Block, with lighter fellings, at the same time, in the other half; and during the second-half of the time the bulk of the fellings would pass into the second-half of the area. In this way we should be working, as far as we safely could, on the lines of the Uniform system, and do away to a great extent with the disadvantage of a large periodic Block. We shall have a compromise between the Uniform and Group systems, holding to the greater safety (from the regeneration point of view) and the other good points of the Group system, while obtaining, too, as far as circumstances will allow, the advantage of the restricted regeneration area of the Uniform method.

It will no doubt at first sight appear unnecessary to have a large periodic Block, if, as above suggested, we work from one side of the area across to the other, but as a matter of fact we could not with safety tie ourselves down strictly to a small periodic Block. All we can do is to work, *as far as circumstances will permit*, across from one point to another, and we must allow ourselves elbow-room, as it were, to fall back upon in case our advance growth in the part we are trying to work the more heavily, is not for the moment in a state for further fellings. Regular methods (except Selection) have not as yet been applied to Sâl, and we have yet to learn how quickly or slowly it is advisable to move in clearing

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away the overhead stock to reproduce the forest. It is evident that the more quickly we can safely go, the smaller can our periodic Block be, but as to start with we must fix our period arbitrarily, or nearly so, it behoves us to give ourselves a margin of safety. The experience of the first period will give the officer revising the Working Plan much to go upon in drawing up his prescriptions. Thus, for example, we might in the first instance fix on 120 years as the rotation, with three 40-year periods, but the experience of the first period, or supposing the revision was to be in 20 years, —that of the first 20 years,—might lead him to order six periods of 20 years each, or a different length of rotation and other periods, and so on ; but we must of necessity grope in the dark till experience comes.

Presuming that we adopt the Group system, it will be necessary to fix a check for the annual outturn during the first period. We might calculate the total value in the first periodic Block by working a linear survey across it, from which we should ascertain the number of trees, arranged in diameter classes, and again in height classes, and then fell and cube type-trees for each class. This done, we should have the cubic contents of the stock on the area traversed by the linear survey, and multiplying this by the total area of the periodic Block, should arrive, after a fashion, at the total cubic contents of the stock in the Block. But this method is open to serious error. It would surely be safer, besides being far simpler, to count the standing stock, omitting the smallest class from the calculation, because so much of this latter class, as is well grown, may advantageously be absorbed into the new stock, while the badly-grown individuals would be of small practical value beyond fuel. If it was considered too laborious to count over the whole Block, a linear survey might be adopted, but it would certainly be better to count the whole stock. The number of trees divided by the number of years in the period will give the number of trees to fell annually, and there will then be no risk of finding ourselves at the end of the period with an excess or deficit which with a volume check, however carefully fixed, would be inevitable. It may be objected that if we have no check but the number of trees, the outturn in cubic feet may vary greatly from year to year. That might be, but personally I doubt it, and if it did I do not think it would matter very much. There will be a number of Working sections in the Division, and the fluctuations in their several outturns are pretty certain to cancel against one another. The marking, too, will be simpler, and therefore better done, if not complicated by having to estimate the cubic content (for we could only estimate) —a thing which would be pretty well impossible to do correctly and most laborious—while the marking was going on and the trees still standing. Another great difficulty with a volume check

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would be to find what figure we must add to allow for growth during the period itself. Altogether, Volume would be so difficult to work by that we shall do well to give up the attempt. But to fix a number of trees, will, I think, very fairly meet our purposes, and provide the necessary check. The second periodic Block, when fixed after the close of the first period, would be dealt with in the same manner, of course.

As the fellings proceed, we might usefully measure, each year, a certain number of trees in the various diameter classes, but in doing this it will be necessary to recollect that the new class of forest which is about to grow up will consist of trees regularly grown, whereas the old material has come up under irregular conditions. Therefore, the trees to be measured must be carefully chosen, those only being taken which show boles and crowns of the kind we are expecting in the next generation.

The remaining periodic Blocks will steadily close up during the first period, and it will be our business to do our utmost to bring about as dense a leaf-canopy as possible, so as to kill out all the grass and render the forest practically fire-proof, and to ameliorate the condition of the soil. When an area has once been thoroughly purged of grass by a long spell of cover, it is practicable, I believe, to somewhat slacken the density of the cover, as in such an area the grass cannot immediately return. But in the first instance we should arrange to close up the canopy to as extreme a density as possible, and completely eliminate every bit of grass. Probably this will be satisfactorily accomplished before the end of the sapling stage of growth. Nor is it sufficient to have the crowns merely meeting overhead; we must get the vertical depth of the canopy as great as the species will permit of. I cannot say quite what this will amount to with Sâl, but with Beech we often find that, although to all appearance we have a very fair density of cover, yet there is a growth of bramble, more or less profuse, on the ground, and I can only attribute this to a want of depth in the cover. With this object, then, we shall do well to leave even suppressed trees alone until they actually begin to fall off, which will be a sign that the cover which is suppressing them is dense enough for our purposes. Once, however, the grass and weeds have completely disappeared from the soil, we can thin a little more freely, and diminish the acuteness of the struggle among the trees, while ever keeping a close watch against returning grass. It is indeed our object to bring on to the ground a certain number of seedlings in advance of the regeneration fellings, this being the very essence of the Group system; this will require a more open cover in the later stages. Our theoretical working will consist of a gradual removal of the old stock in precise measure as the seedlings take its place, and if only we could regulate this perfectly, no part of the Working section would ever be without either an old or a young

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stock upon every yard of its surface, and the transition from one rotation to the next would be imperceptible. Doubtless we can only approximate to this ideal, but Sâl will, at least, germinate well in shade, and thus in advance of the felling, and if its first year or two are so passed, the seedling will probably be all the better provided with a root appendage, and with the strength necessary to survive and thrive, by the time light reaches it.

Thus a forest worked by the Group method seems to come up, as nearly as circumstances will allow, to our theoretically perfectly grown forest. Such a forest I take to be one in which there annually arrives at maturity (and is removed) just that number of trees, no more or less, which, when measured up, will together give an outturn equal to the annual increment of the forest, and while at the same time the soil is kept at its maximum of production, the trees not yet arrived at maturity are carried forward steadily at just that condition of closeness which cause them to produce both the maximum quantity, and the most useful shape of wood. The Group method, on the whole, seems to come as nearly as can be managed, to this ideal.

There is, however, a difficulty connected with thinnings. It would be theoretically most correct to pass through the forest, save the youngest woods, at short intervals, and whenever a struggle preventing that condition of development which we desire is discovered, to relieve it, but such a course would be impracticable for many reasons easy to see. Its correctness might even be denied, on the ground that a forest must be allowed rest, but I think the objection would be groundless, because when thinnings are repeated often, there will be but little to remove at any given point, and a thinning, properly made, is nearly always done with a light hand. So that the disturbance would be almost nil, more especially among even-aged trees. But though only a tree here and there will be cut, causing little commotion in the forest, the total outturn of these fellings will not be insignificant. In practice, thinnings can only come round as often as external circumstances will allow, but it seems to the writer that every effort should be made to render the thinning rotation as short as possible. Every forester will remember how when making thinnings he has here and there found places where the trees are struggling hard together, and where consequently the struggle must have been in progress already for a considerable time. In such cases has there not been a loss of development, which might have been prevented had the forester stepped in sooner? With a comparatively long period between thinnings, one must either cut away trees which are already doing much harm, this being a case of a past loss of development, or remove trees in advance, and before the psychological moment, lest before the next thinning they will do harm, and this is a case of preventing full development.

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While on this subject of thinnings, we may usefully point out how advantageous it would be (and even more so—much more so—in regeneration fellings than in thinnings) to do our work a good deal by merely lopping branches, instead of felling whole trees. It so very often happens, especially in irregular forests, that a tree on one side is doing much harm whereas on the other its presence is useful. Then there are large species, like Haldu (*Adina*) and the figs, which use up large spaces in the forest, and the removal of which as whole trees will make large interruptions in the canopy. They are often, moreover, very difficult to cut down entirely, and would further, in falling, smash numbers of other trees. Girdling can often be usefully done, thus saving the damage caused by felling, but it is often difficult to successfully girdle figs, haldu, and other species, and, as in the case above, it may happen that it is only one side which needs to be cleared away. The writer has often in practice found the value of lopping in place of felling, while working Improvement Fellings. With a little patience one can manage to find men who can climb, or who will learn to climb, and the formation of a class of climbers (who will have to be well paid) will be of the greatest use—more especially for the purpose of lopping off the branches of large trees about to be felled in regeneration fellings, or among surrounding trees of smaller size in any operation.

We have above been considering the application of the Group system to Sâl forest of the kind most usually found, that is, forests which have suffered from over-felling and other damage in past times, and which are now-a-days almost universally, I believe, being dealt with by Improvement Fellings. But there are also, here and there (as in the hinder parts of the N-W P. "Bhabar" Divisions), forests which have not in the past suffered at the hands of the iconoclast. Such forests contain large timber scattered throughout, and are usually at present under Selection Plans prescribing the removal of a number of trees (up to a given maximum), of over a given girth, from a given area. If, as I think would be advisable, these Selection-worked forests were gradually brought under the Group method, we should still have to remove the full-aged trees from the periodic Blocks not undergoing the main regeneration operations, and Selection would consequently continue to be applied in the later periodic Blocks. Before closing this article there is one important point which needs consideration, and which, though it will not concern all Sâl forests, very greatly concerns some. This is the presence of bamboos in the Sâl forest. Their action appears to be very much the same as it is in relation to Teak; they prevent a re-growth. I base this on observation of the Sukhrau Block of the Ganges Division (N.-W. P.). This forest consists for the most part of an upper stage of healthy, but crookedly grown and not very numerous, Sâl, with the intervals between the trees occupied very often by thriving

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bamboos. It was closed to fire and grazing somewhere about 1882 (not later in any case), and has never been burnt. The writer saw it in 1883 and 1897; the Sâl reproduction had just about the same appearance in both years. This want of progress is most marked and I can only attribute it to the bamboos. As far as I can remember, the bamboo revenue of this Block is about Rs. 2,000 every second year, while the area is, I think, some 1000 acres. A bamboo Block may produce more revenue than if it were under Sâl, and yet it may conceivably be well to eradicate the bamboos for the sake of the Sâl, since there are many areas not suitable for Sâl, which will bear bamboos, and because Sal will stand a greater length of carriage by reason of the smaller space it takes up relatively. Where there is no doubt that Sâl is, and will remain, more valuable than bamboos, the operation seems called for at once. This same Ganges Division is a case in point. Although it is far the most valuable bamboo Division in the N-W. P. and Oudh, its bumper year showed a bamboo revenue of Rs. 1,21,000 and 10,000,000 bamboos exported, yet only half the area can be annually thrown open to cutting, and the more distant parts either do not sell at all, or sell very badly. If, then, the area under bamboos were decreased, the less paying parts would probably rise in value. It is, of course, very much open to argument, but it seems to me that the true sylvicultural principle for working bamboos would be to work intensely and cut annually, reserving a given number of culms (including those of the last rains) per clump. Were Sâl encouraged at the expense of the bamboo, it is probable that nothing short of eradication of the rhizomes would suffice. Such a measure would, of course, require the most careful consideration of all the local circumstances, but at present it does seem that in a struggle between Sâl and bamboo the latter triumphs, and surely the matter is one which cannot safely be lost sight of.

I fear this article is very full of theory, but until the Sâl has actually come under regular treatment, we *can* only theorise. It will, too, be admitted that it is useful to begin by setting up a theory, and thereafter correct it as practice may show to be advisable. In any case, Mr. Editor, I claim your sympathies, since it was you yourself who, some years ago, suggested to me the idea of applying the Group method to Sâl forest.

H-H.

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On Suitable Seasons for Coppice Fellings.

The question of the most suitable season for coppicing, raised by a memorandum by Mr. Fernandez, reprinted in the September number of the *Forester*, is one of great theoretical interest, especially in Circles where large areas are operated upon and the public or great industrial concerns are dependent on the outturn; its practical importance, however, must in a great measure depend on how far local circumstances will permit an adherence to sylvicultural requirements. The period of felling is limited, apart from these reqirements, by the effects of climate, by the opportunities for labor and carriage, by the contract time of delivery and so forth. The unhealthiness of the late autumn may thus prevent the commencement of work so soon as desirable; labor and carriage may only be to hand during the seasonal cessation of field work; or the purchaser may, owing to the exigencies of his business, be obliged to fix for the delivery of the perishable produce of coppice fellings, a time inconvenient for forest interests.

On the other hand the sylvicultural requirements of coppice fellings demand, as pointed out by Mr. Fernandez, that these operations should be complete before the period of vegetative activity sets in; in all probability not less than two or three weeks before that date, in order to allow recovery from the shock of somewhat drastic treatment and the adaptation of the plant to the novel conditions imposed on it. This surmise is tenable when we recall the evident symptoms of malaise following much more trivial interference with the even life of a plant. The mean time of inauguration of vegetative activity must indeed be easy to fix for the various latitudes and species with which the forester has to deal; but here again only wide views can be taken, and, if coppicing operations are extensive, then the date fixed for their closure must be to some extent arbitrary, for we can only strike an average for the area comprised in one Working Circle and in doing so favour the most valuable species, whilst remaining uninfluenced by the frequent irregularities in the season so typical of Indian climates. However, a calculation even so vague as above indicated, would, in practice, suffice where large areas are concerned, were it not that we are again confronted with further difficulties in that local variations in aspect, soil and moisture render a decision based on generalities of latitude and climate often of no value whatever. Instances of such local differences will occur to every forester. For example, vegetative activity evidenced by the spring flush of foliage, appears to be retarded by a high water level, which seems to favor a retention of the old foliage, owing perhaps to an unusually copious water supply. Such delay may extend over a period sufficiently long to curtail seriously a short working season. Again, our coppice forests may, and

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often do, stand on poor and shallow soil where the contained moisture does not, in the dry season, suffice to arouse the vegetative activity of the plant. In extreme cases in northern latitudes, we may even find that a leaf flush occurs in the winter season when air and surface soil are saturated, that it is absent in the spring and re-occurs at the break of the summer rains. These and similar irregularities might throw out our calculations and go to prove once more that however precise forestry may be in theory, yet in Indian practice we are only able to apply our knowledge in generalities and for the good of the forest as a whole.

So far, we have considered only the obstacles which may be met when we endeavour solely from the stand-point of sylvicultural requirements, to fix rigid periods for the prosecution of coppice fellings. Far more important factors have already been indicated in the commencement of this paper. Let us suppose that the forester has, after due consideration of all the circumstances of the case, decided on the season most suitable for coppicing in any Working Circle, that he has expended much forethought on the demands of species, soil and other influences, and fixed those approximate dates for his fellings which are most desirable for the forest as a whole. So far, his researches are only of technical value, and it may not be possible, owing to local conditions, to give effect to the result of the investigation. It is evident that we can only carry out our fellings when the forest is to a certain extent habitable and when labor and carriage are available; and that, whatever the requirements of the forests, if the Working season and the period of least vegetative activity do not coincide, then so much the worse for the forest, for we must have the fuel, and it must be cut and removed at that time when nature permits, and when men and cattle will do the work at the pay we can offer. Thus, though research into technical details may be interesting, it cannot in the case in point induce any beneficial changes in working, unless the period when work is possible extends throughout the whole, or a greater portion, of the year, thus enabling the forester to select that season most appropriate from the sylvicultural point of view. In Northern India, the flush of foliage occurs in April, and vegetative activity is fairly quiescent by the end of September. Outside this period coppice fellings proceed because the forest is accessible and labor plentiful. It is indeed probable that in the largest proportion of the area worked, this period is sylviculturally most suitable, but this is a fortunate coincidence in which the forester has no hand. So many factors are necessary when we wish to compare the quality of coppice growth, that one may well fear that any undue stress laid on one factor should vitiate the conclusions arrived at,

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We have (*a.*) The season of felling,
(*b.*) The method of felling,
(*c.*) The age of the Coppice stools,
(*d.*) The height of the permanent water level,
(*e.*) The quality and depth of soil,
(*f.*) The climatic influences of the past as compared with the present year, and
(*g.*) The direction and intensity of light.

This last indeed has perhaps the most immediate and direct effect on the annual growth. We have all seen cases where excessive caution in the felling of coppice under standard, has involved repetition of these fellings and loss of increment. Some of us can point to forests where, on the other hand, in attention to local conditions has thrown back the forest growth for many years; and it may be advisable in estimating the value of coppice growth, first to take this and other factors where the influence of man is at work, into consideration, before proceeding to classify the results from natural causes. One can but admire the courage which in the Central Provinces has inaugurated over a lengthy period a series of measurements in several divisions on numerous sets of seven sub-sample plots. Experience of the difficulties attendant on accurate records of this description, has tended elsewhere to lead to a reduction in the number of recording stations, although there is theoretically no doubt of their value. In this instance, at least, we need not impose a burden, hard to borne in these days of inadequate staff and measuring responsibilities, before first judging of the necessities of each case. To do so, let us first eliminate from the calculations that portion of the year when coppice fellings are impossible and, from our comparison of growth, these causes in variation in growth beyond the choice of the season of felling for which man is directly responsible. This contraction of the field of observation will then, in most cases, be so considerable as to render us content to await the result of investigations in the Central Provinces without affording active assistance.

O. C.

II.—CORRESPONDENCE.

The I. F. S. Colors.

SIR,

The colors are now settled and patterns have been sent off, but the makers desire a certain number to be ordered in

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advance before putting it in hand. There will be available:

1 Coat piece, with embroidered pocket
1 Hat ribbon
1 Tie ribbon (like narrow hat ribbon)
1 Tandem tie (for sailor's knot)
1 Sash for waist.

any or all of which may be had separately. The prices are not yet fixed, but the coat will probably come to about Rs. 25. Bombay men can get them made at the Stores there. Those too far from Bombay, can either get the cloth and have it made up, or send their measurements, or order through tailors in their provinces. But in the mean time, to *start the manufacture*, I must ask all those who intend to get coats, to *send me an order* for the articles required, so that I may be able to guarantee a sufficient number. It should also be stated whether the articles are required in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras or Rangoon; Bombay will be first served.

F. GLEADOW.

III.—OFFICIAL PAPERS & INTELLIGENCE.

Note on Pushundi Landslip.

In the eastern part of the Dawaipani block of the Darjeeling Forest division, at an elevation of about 5,000 feet, where the slope is steep, a landslip occurred some years ago, the banks of the stream giving way and falling into the bed. The road here, as generally in this locality, consists of gneiss, passing into shale in places, and when forming steep banks exposed to the action of percolating water and alternations of wet and dry, is liable to crumble and fall. The banks of this stream having given way, the steep broadened bed of the stream formed a landslip extending over an area of about 5 acres, through the boulders and other *detritus* of which, the stream, during the rains, meanders in many streamlets. This state of things would probably not have existed, but for the circumstance that this land, for some years, formed the subject of dispute between the Forest Department and the neighbouring Tea Estate, and although the question of boundary had been some time decided, the question of possession was not decided until 1894, since when, the Forest Department has exercised control. During this dispute, considerable cutting and grazing on and above the area now forming a landslip, was practised and prevented the forest growth from preserving the surface soil.

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In 1894-95 it was observed that the landslip was, in parts, covering itself with a natural growth of *Utis* (*Alnus nepalensis*) a tree common in the vicinity. The Divisional Officer reported: 'In the Pashundijhora, on a steep landslip (almost precipitous 'in parts) where the exposed surface was a mass of stones, boulders 'and sandy and clayey soil with abundance of springs, great 'numbers of *utis* seedlings were found, which had manifestly 'sprung up since the landslip occurred." An experiment was then made as follows:—

Horizontal rows of large cuttings were firmly put in at intervals wattled with branches of trees which strike root readily such as Erythrina, Willow and *Asari* (*Viburnum erubescens*) and between these horizontal fascines, which were intended to consolidate the soil, the ground was planted with utis (*Alnus nepalensis*), pipli (*Bucklandia populnea*), birch and trees of a few other species which are usually found growing in such conditions.

In 1896 it was reported that the natural reproduction of the *utis* on the landslip had been very satisfactory and that, in parts, these trees had already formed thickets. Part of the plantation had, however, been washed away by the heavy rains of August 1895 and the area was therefore sown broadcast with one and a half maunds of *utis* seed and half maund of cryptomeria. It again suffered from the heavy rains of June 1896. The natural reproduction, however, gave hopes of successfully fixing the slip.

In 1897, it was recorded that the broadcast sowing of *utis* had clothed the entire area with seedlings and a hope was expressed that, in a few years, the slip would be efficiently protected from further damage. It was not considered neccessary to reconstruct the wattle fences which had been completely washed away.

The growth of *utis*, principally due probably to natural sowing, is now considered satisfactory and, with the aid of a few artificial broadcast sowings above the top of the slip and over the upper part of the slip itself, will, it is expected, put a stop to the sliding of the jhora. Of course, all cattle are now excluded and cutting is not allowed.

Utis is a quick-growing tree and, besides smaller plants, there are now many poles 15 to 20 feet high, of 4 and 5 years of age, of which the roots penetrate to some distance. There seems a fair prospect of protection, assisted as above explained, by a few broadcast artificial sowings, preventing the formation of what threatened to be an extensive slip.

(Sd) E. G. CHESTER,
Offg. Cons. of Forests,
Bengal.

DARJEELING
The 27th October, 1898.

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On growing American India-rubber trees in South India.

By Mr. R. L. Proudlock.

Of late I have given considerable attention to the chief American rubber-producing trees of Burliar (elevation about 2,600 feet), where the following species are growing, namely :

(1) *Hevea braziliensis* (Para rubber tree).

(2) *Manihot Glaziovii* (Ceara rubber tree).

(3) *Castilloa elastica* (Central American rubber tree).

Hevea braziliensis (*Para rubber tree*).—Of *Hevea* only a single tree exists in the upper garden at Burliar. I measured it on the 3rd March 1898 and the measurements were as follow :—

	FT.	IN.
Height	66	0
Girth at the base	4	2
„ at 3 feet from the ground ...	3	4½
„ at 4 „ „ ...	3	4
„ at 6 „ „ ...	3	2

It has a clean bole of 10 feet, above which the stem is trifurcated. This, I think, is the identical tree raised from cuttings received from Mr. Ferguson of Calicut, by the late Mr. Jamieson, and planted in 1881. It will, therefore, be about 16 years old. This species yields the finest quality of rubber, which, when clean, always commands the highest price in the London market. The single tree at Burliar is growing luxuriantly, and appears to be perfectly at home. I have, however, not seen it produce any seed yet. Very considerable attention has been, and is being, paid to the Para rubber tree by Mr. Willis, Director of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Peradeniya, and by Mr. Ridley, Director of the Botanic and Forest department, Straits Settlements, Singapore. Both these gentlemen have recently written and issued instructive articles on rubber trees in general and on the Para rubber tree in particular. With regard to forming plantations of *Hevea*, I think it advisable to form them in moist situations from sea level up to 3,000 feet in rich soils. Such suitable situations can be found on the margins of rivers and mountain streams, especially near their debouchures on the northern, western and southern sides of the Nilgiris—the eastern side being perhaps rather too dry for this species.

Manihot Glaziovii (*Ceara rubber tree*).—There are several trees of different sizes of this species at Burliar, but with one exception they are all quite young and unfit for tapping. The exception I refer to is a tree measuring 5′ 4″ in girth at the base and 4′ 11″ at 2 feet from the ground. The measurements were taken by me on the 3rd March 1898. It is the oldest tree of Ceara at Burliar, and is probably one of the seven planted in 1879 by the late Mr. Jamieson. It will therefore be about

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eighteen years old. I also tapped it on the 3rd March, 1898, and obtained 1¾ ounces of dry and fairly clean rubber from it within four hours. On again visiting the garden on the 17th March, I picked off all the rubber from the same tree which had oozed out subsequent to my visit on the 3rd idem, and which amounted to five-eights of an ounce. The net result from a single tapping and two collections was 2⅜ ounces of dry rubber.

The Ceara is quite at home, and produces seed abundantly every year at Burliar. It will grow almost anywhere on the Nilgiris up to 4,000 feet and in almost any soil, no matter how barren and dry it may appear to be. It will grow well in situations along with the Para and the Central American rubbers, and equally well,if not even better, in other situations which would prove altogether too dry for them.

Castilloa elastica (*Central American Rubber*).—There are two trees of this species apparently quite at home at Burliar. I measured them on the 3rd March 1898, and their measurements were as follow :—

		FT.	INS.
Tree in Upper Garden.	Height	55	0
	Girth at 1 foot from the ground	4	10
	„ at 3 feet „	4	4
	„ at 4 „ „	4	0
	„ at 6 „ „	3	10
Tree in Lower Garden.	Height	32	0
	Girth at 1 foot from the ground	3	2
	„ at 3 feet „	2	5
	„ at 6 „ „	2	2

The tree in the Upper Garden is probably the identical one received by the late Mr. Jamieson in the latter part of 1881, or about the beginning of 1882, from the Royal Botanic Gardens, Ceylon. It will now be about sixteen years old. I made an incision in this tree on the 3rd March 1898, when it was in full flower, for the purpose of ascertaining whether it contained much milk or not. The result satisfied my highest expectations, for the milk simply poured out of the incision in abundance. On the 14th April, I found many ripe seeds, which had dropped, lying on the ground beneath the tree ; and I also observed that the tree was laden with fruit containing seeds in progressive stages of development. I again tapped the tree on the 14th April, but the milk was not so abundant as on the 3rd March. Perhaps, the best time to tap this species is just before and during the flowering period, but not after the seeds commence to ripen. This statement should be accepted only tentatively, for I think the best tapping season in the Nilgiri district will eventually be found to last from the middle of December to the middle of March. Further experiments on a larger scale can alone

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satisfactorily determine the best month or months in the year for tapping. I suggest that *Castilloa* should be planted in the same situations as I have recommended for planting *Hevea*.

There has been a great deal written about the American rubber trees not being a success in this country. It would, I think, be well to bear in mind that it is only about twenty-five years ago that the Para rubber tree was introduced, and only about twenty-two years since the Ceara and the *Castilloa* were introduced into India. It is therefore rather early yet, I think, to expect to get good results from them. Several writers have given their opinions as to when tapping should be commenced; but, in my opinion, they almost all recommend the tapping to be commenced when the trees are too young. I unhesitatingly advise that neither the Para, Ceara, or *Castilloa* rubber trees should be tapped for commercial purposes until they have obtained a girth of 4 feet at 4 feet from the ground. Even after a tree has attained the girth stated, the tapping should be done carefully so as not to injure the cambium layer and therefore the consequent further normal growth of the tree.

Having got a large number of trees of the requisite girth, the question of getting the rubber extracted and collected from them does not seem to me to present any great difficulty. It would, I think, be very easy to train a few men in the best methods of tapping each of the above-named species, and these men would quickly train others. These trained men and their assistants could then be employed to collect rubber from the trees in the Government plantations or forests by contract, and, as it were, sell the rubber to Government at so much per pound, viss, or maund. These rubber collectors would, of course, need to be controlled in their operations. I do not think it will ever pay to collect rubber by daily-paid labour; it will have to be done by some system of contract.

I venture to draw attention to what Robert Cross has written about the quantity of rubber yielded by *Hevea* in its native country. He remarks, "Although many of the trees of 'this class are large, the quantity of milk obtained is surprisingly 'little." It will therefore be well not to expect each rubber-yielding tree to produce a large quantity of rubber at each tapping. The solution of the question, perhaps, lies in having a large number of trees, and in not expecting to get more than a small to moderate yield of rubber from each tree.

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Bending Tests of Wood.

The following statement showing results of tests in bending made on specimens of wood supplied by him to the Workshops of the College of Engineering in Madras, have been communicated by the District Forest Officer of South Coimbatore.

No.	Name of specimen of wood.	Dimensions. Length, inches = l × 12.	Dimensions. Breadth, inches = b.	Dimensions. Depth, inches = d.	Weight of specimen, oz.	Weight per cubic foot, lbs.	Load in tons, L.	Deflection at centre in inches under the load L	Modulus of Elasticity lbs.	Breaking load in tons.	F_T maximum stress at extreme fibre, lbs. per sq. inch.	K. modulus of rupture.	Remarks.
1	Stephegyne pazvifolia	25 3/4	1·69	1·67	39 3/4	60·56	...	...	...	·708	10599	588·8	Very deep vertical flaw—bad specimen.
2	Gluta travancorica ...	26 3/4	1·91	1·92	48 1/4	53·12	·5	·198	968755	·928	9299	516·6	Good specimen.
3	Dalbergia latifolia ...	27 3/4	1·77	1·73	47	60·55	·5	·461	613770	·910	12121	673·4	Vertical crack at one end—bad specimen.
4	Terminalia tomentosa	28 1/8	1·69	1·73	50 1/8	66·33	·2	·098	1209560	1·035	14437	802·0	Crushed and torn—good specimen.
5	Cassia Fistula ...	25 7/8	1·85	1·84	60 1/4	73·88	·5	·094	2393000	1·533	17270	959·4	Do. Very good specimen.
6	Mesua ferrea ...	27	1·57	1·61	49 1/4	77·93	·2	·164	965284	·753	13056	725·3	Knotty specimen.
7	Xylia dolabriformis	28 1/16	1·84	1·84	57 1/4	65·08	·5	·183	1229500	1·198	13570	753·9	Torn only—good specimen.
8	Anogeissus latifolia	26 25/32	1·79	1·78	55 1/4	69·90	·5	·293	866900	1·235	15600	866·6	Fine specimen—knotty, crushed and torn.
9	Bassia latifolia ...	26 5/8	1·50	1·53	40 1/4	71·13	...	...	...	·4	8198	455·4	Fracture, fine specimen, knotty, all knots in compression.
10	Terminalia paniculata	26 3/4	1·70	1·74	47 1/2	64·86	·6	·256	1359350	1·20	16451	914·0	Good fracture and specimen.

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IV.—REVIEW.

The Ceylon Forest Report.

The Ceylon Forest Report for 1897 is less interesting than usual, because it is written by an acting Conservator who only took charge near the close of the year and could therefore say but little from his own experience. Still, it is a record of a great deal of good work. The revenue was Rs. 4,88,956, and the expenditure Rs. 4,65,383, leaving a nett profit of Rs. 23,573. Forest settlement is still going on, nineteen new forests, totalling 2,373 acres, having been reserved during the year. Maps, however, seem to be much behind hand in Ceylon, as the Department seems to be obliged to map its own forests as best it can. Good working plans exist for some of the forests, and progress with the others is being made as fast as possible. There are a good many sample plots being measured, but they seem to be all small and include very few trees. Several subordinates were reduced, dismissed, or retired for inefficiency among the small staff, which seems to point either to a difficulty in obtaining reliable officials or to an insistence on efficiency which might advantageously be exercised occasionally in this country. *Chena* cultivation appears to be a form of *Kumri*, and presents the same difficulties, being practised, either illicitly or with permission, to the great detriment of the forest, both by Veddahs and Cingalese. Forest fires, in spite of precautions, do great damage sometimes. Plantations are made and carefully kept up with varying results. Rubber is being tried but it is too early to show results. *Pithecolobium Saman*, which generally grows into a fine looking tree, in one place unaccountably assumed a semi-creeping habit, and had to be interplanted. It is sad to have to record already the death from fever of Mr. A. M. Handy, who had but recently returned from deputation to Dehra Dun where his unfailing good nature and cheerful spirit had earned him the goodwill of all his comrades and Instructors.

Forestry in the United States.

We have received Circular No. 9 from the Division of Forestry, reporting further work in timber physics, by Mr. Filibert Roth, having reference to the bald cypress, *Taxodium distichum*, otherwise called, in reference to the quality of the wood, *white, yellow, black* and *red* cypress. It is a pity that American popular names are so inextricably entangled, the same names being applied to numbers of the different trees, and any number of names to the same tree. The epithet bald is sensible, referring to the fact that the tree is bare in winter. *Black* cypress was originally applied

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to timber that would not float, and *white* to timber that would, but the distinction is not always kept up, and the terms are often used to indicate shades of colour, timber stained by submergence or otherwise being called *black*. The normal colour appears to be really more or less red. On fertile land, the tree is a large one, attaining 100 ft. high and 4 ft. in diameter above the commonly swelled butt. One tree is mentioned 120 feet high and 10½ feet diameter at 3 feet from the ground. The tree cuts up wastefully, and on bad lands only attains dimensions fit for poles and piles. It has also a habit in many places of forming immensely thick boles, with many conspicuous swellings or "knees." A tree of this sort is a curious object, not more than 20 feet in height, with a swelled base 10 feet thick and a diameter of 10 or 12 inches above the swelling. On good land, bald cypress will add nearly a foot in height annually for 80 or 90 years. The diameter growth is slow, but well sustained, trees 900 to 1200 years old continuing to lay on wood as fast during the last century as in former times. It is thus to be feared that the bald cypress is doomed, for present supplies are being drawn from trees mostly 300 to 1000 years old, and trees of 500 years old were seen everywhere. It is not likely that any such exploitable age as 300 or 500 years can be fixed for ordinary working plans, but it appears possible that the rate of growth may be greatly quickened, some trees in Washington, D. C., on rather poor soil, too, having put on a half to one inch in diameter annually. Certain other trees, too, at St. Louis, though under 50 years old, are 60 to 70 feet high, and 14 to 18 inches diameter. Bald cypress has another peculiarity know as "pegginess," "peck," or "bothy." The latter term is erroneous, being derived from a false idea that the defect was due to "bots," another erroneous term for beetle larvæ or other grubs. The cross section of a "peggy" log looks as if a number of small pegs, one fourth to one inch thick, had been driven into the log and then withdrawn, and the holes filled with powdered decayed wood. Young trees are generally free from the trouble, which has only been noticed in trees that had lost branches in the crown. Nevertheless 30 per cent. of the supply is peggy, and no region is free from it. The real cause is a fungus which usually attacks some broken branch and works downward. It is not clear whether the "peg" holes are longitudinal or transverse. They might be longitudinal, caused by the downward growth of the fungus, or they might be transverse, caused by an invisible mycelium working downwards and giving off transverse developments, by way of fructification or otherwise, and forming visible tubes to contain them. The writer of this notice, once found a solid tubular fungus in a *rotten* log but could not determine whether it had formed or only adopted the tubular hole in which it grew. There was no fructification visible, and the specimen was unfortunately lost

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before it reached camp. For rough work such as fencing, pegginess is not a great defect, for it never spreads. The powder simply washes out, leaving holes in perfectly sound wood. It is not possible before felling to tell "peggy" from sound trees. Nothing is known as to the relationship, if any, between "peg" and "knees." The abundance or absence of water does not appear to affect the question, in either case, but knees certainly seem to affect mostly trees of inferior growth or constitution. The yield of bald cypress per acre is generally about 15,000 feet. B. M. (board measure) per acre, but may run up to as much as 75,000 or even 100,000 ft. This species ranges along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts and up the Mississippi to its junction with the Ohio, but remains mostly at levels below 100 ft. above sea level. It is frequently almost pure and forms some thousands of square miles in the delta and in the swamps of Florida and Georgia. It is estimated that the available snpply is fully 27,000,000,000 of feet B. M. while the annual cut is about 500,000,000 feet. That is to say, at present rates, even if estimates are on the safe side, the supply cannot last more than about 60 years. Sixty years re-growth is a very poor outlook for the future generation indeed. There will then, apparently, be nothing much more than a foot thick to cut. The system of working is by water transit, the country being impracticable for teams. The trees are usually girdled a year in advance, an operation of doubtful utility, as the trees cannot dry appreciably, and there is danger from borers. They are then felled, cut into 20-40 foot lengths, and left till a flood enables them to be pushed into the water, where they are rafted and towed to the mills by steamers or large pull-boats. The dragging into deep water is sometimes done for a distance of sometimes 2,000 ft. by a steam skidder on the Lidgerwood system.

The timber is typically coniferous, of dark color, medium weight and strength, great durability, fine and even grain, with narrow rings, fairly long fibre, without resin ducts, but with resin cells, slow to dry, easily worked, and suitable for many uses. The sap and heartwood are quite distinct. The resin cells sometimes give a false appearance of rings. The color is generally a yellowish or grayish brown, lighter in the sapwood, with sometimes darker shades of olive or reddish-purplish brown. In old logs there are usually a number of concentric rings of much deeper colour. In each annual ring the summer wood has a specific gravity of about 0·90, while the spring wood has only about 0·36, so that, as in the pines of the Southern States, the weight of the timber, and its quality, depend on the proportion of summer wood. It is a pretty and often beautiful wood, shrinks no more than other conifers, and takes a good polish.

It is with regret that we read Dr. Fernow's statement that this will probably be the last of these most interesting and useful studies of U. S. timbers, it having been decided that such work

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is no longer to form part of the business of the Division of Forestry. It is to be hoped that the decision may be reconsidered.

The Report of New South Wales Department of Agriculture and Forestry for 1895-97.

The Legislative Assembly of New South Wales has recently issued the Report of the Department of Agriculture and Forestry for the period from 1st July 1895 to 30th June 1897 and a supplementary document of 3 pages for forestry during the last half of 1897. It is difficult to speak with due respect for the proceedings of this august body in the matter of Forestry. in fact there is hardly a benighted State on the earth, so far as information is available, which could not show as good a record. The report for eighteen months covers some 63 pages, of which six have more or less to do with forestry. It is painfully evident that the New South Wales' notion of Forestry consists simply in letting in lumbermen to cut all they can, and pushing the export trade as fast as possible. The great idea is to "keep the mills going full time" and of course "at reasonable prices" to the lumberers. Had there been anything creditable to say, no doubt it would have been mentioned, but the only thing that appears is the existence of a few plantations or nurseries, which appear to be kept up principally for the benefit of public bodies and outsiders. There does not appear to be such a person as a Conservator in the country, though there are four clerks, 39 foresters, 5 acting foresters, and about 300 assistant foresters "in the ranks of the Mounted Police." Forest management appears to consist in the good old primeval pernicious system of licenses to go in and loot, and forest offences consist mostly in evasions of the license. The sylviculture of the Report is confined to a single idea. It is as follows: "The future supply of most of 'our indigenous hardwoods can be simply and economically assumed 'by (1) providing sufficient land for them to reproduce upon; (2) 'by enacting stringent laws to prevent interference by man with 'crops whilst in the miniature stages; (3) by assisting them 'towards maturity by the least costly of all methods, *viz.*, destroying the superabundant and useless timbers and providing 'air and light for the best and healthiest stocks which are to be 'allowed to remain and perfect themselves." The provision of sufficient land is the most elementary principle of forestry, but is certainly not carried out in New South Wales. There are 3 classes of Reserves—A, 2,913,061 acres; B, 128,995 acres; C, 2,554,465 acres. A and B are under license only, while C

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is under both license and royalty. If this land were really reserved, it might perhaps suffice, but, unfortunately, alienation is part of the practical politics of the day. It is not so stated in the Report, but outside information leads to the belief that presumably a big syndicate demands new lands to clear, and the responsible officials find it to their interest to give in. Thus, since the last Report, 44,757 acres of forest have been destroyed. Some 233,000 acres of land, being forest but not Reserved, have also been exempted from license, which probably means destroyed. The last proviso, enacting stringent laws to protect immature crops, is very sound, on paper, but it all depends on the maintenance of a sufficient area, and on what the syndicates may allow the Government to consider adequate protection of immature crops. The third proviso comes distinctly under the headings "cheap and nasty," "penny wise and pound foolish." No doubt the syndicates will explain to the Government which are the "superabundant and useless timbers," and how much "air and light" the rest require. Judging by all Indian experience (and it is the experience of human nature in general) all license systems invariably produce results diametrically opposite to what is desired, in that they lead to the cutting out of the "best and healthiest stocks" and the leaving of the "useless" to "perfect themselves," and to perfect the ruin of the forest.

The writer of the few pages on Forestry in the Report however holds sound principles. He has to admit that with the exception of a little thinning and a little talk about planting. the Department has been able to do little more than provide work for hands out of employment, possibly a very doubtful virtue. He regrets that the all important question of the permanence of forest estates has made no progress, and he states clearly that the present area is not capable of reduction, except at the cost of very heavy expense and delay in replanting. "The extent of 'timber destruction effected by ring-barking in pastoral dis-'tricts has been enormous, and whilst conditions are usually 'attached to permissions granted by the Land Department provid-'ing for the preservation of stated proportions or certain species of 'timber, it is doubtful whether the supervision available has 'in all cases been sufficient to enforce the observance of such." And again "Not one of the colonies of Australia possesses even 'a definite system of conservation placed beyond the reach of 'interference by persons desirous of exploiting the timbers." We in India can afford to be amused by the letter of J. C. McD. in our October number, referring to "persons desirous of exploiting the timbers" in Kashmir, but the case of Burma, though it originated prior to our responsibility, should show us very clearly the danger of letting "persons desirous of exploiting the forest" have too free a hand, and also the immense difficulties of Conservancy in Australia, where such "persons" are a power in the land.

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Prickly pear is a public nuisance, so much so that regulations have had to be made for eradicating it, not only on public lands, but also on private estates. The law as to forest offences is not sufficiently deterrent, and as above stated, the staff is far too weak. The office of Forester has now been abolished, or rather merged in that of Conditional Purchase Inspector. This was the "startling" result of an investigation by the Public Service Board. The reasons are not given, and it can only be surmised that the colony, on the cheap and nasty principle, had been trying to get good work out of inferior material without adequate supervision. The whole Forest Branch has now been removed from the control of the Department of Mines and Agriculture, and placed under that of the Department of Lands. It is stated that a Forestry Bill is in contemplation. This will be something very different from forest laws hitherto existing, and may be expected with interest, if without enthusiasm.

Forestry prospects are discussed in the following moderate terms. "In Forestry, the fact that timber-falling operations are 'being conducted on a large scale is looked upon by the public 'as a sign of prosperity; and to a certain extent it undoubt-'edly is, for employment is afforded thereby to a large number 'of persons. The impetus that has been given to the timber 'trades by an export demand, after a long period of depression, 'comes as a fortunate circumstance to the many who are 'dependent on this industry for a living; but there are other 'aspects to be considered before congratulation is too freely 'indulged in, and these are as to whether our resources are cap-'able of supplying an export demand for any period and also 'secondly, as to whether our timbers are not being parted with 'too cheaply. On the question of cheapness there is, of course, 'much to be credited in the argument that we are at this stage 'creating a market, and must move slowly until such is estab-'lished; but if any comparison can be drawn from the small 'dues collected by the State for royalties and rights to cut 'timber, and which, while being so low at to prohibit sufficient 'return to pay cost of working and supervision, are the cause of 'constant complaint and agitation for reducement on the side of 'operators, it would seem that neither the State nor the public 'are profiting from the industry. The question of maintaining 'an export trade is one depending largely upon the policy that 'is to be followed in regard to our forest tracts and their 'working. Under present conditions, with laws not sufficiently 'forceful to aid supervision or check waste and with lands as 'indefinitely set apart that they are liable to withdrawal for sale 'at any time, heedless of their more lasting value for timber pro-'duction, it may be at once set down that, apart from legitimate 'operation, we are burning the candle at both ends, and shall 'soon exhaust our resources. It is frequently asserted that in-'sufficient provision for future supply is being made in the

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'direction of planting operations ; but in the bulk of our commer-
'cial hardwoods, replanting will never be a necessity, for natural
'reproduction follows rapidly upon depletion, and the problem of
'their supply depends principally upon stringent laws against
'immature operation, and sufficient provision of suitable land for
'them to reproduce upon. Forest planting is a costly operation,
'and would not repay the State on the basis of present rates
'paid by operators for the right to cut timber. * * * Men-
'tion may also be made of our Western Pine, a highly valuable
'timber and in great demand. In some parts of the West this
'timber is becoming very scarce, and as it mostly occurs upon
'land suitable for wheat growing, there will always be a danger,
'under existing conditions, of insufficient land being left for the
'production of this species, some idea of the value of this pine
'may be gathered from the fact that a cargo was recently trucked
'from the Narrandera district for shipment to Port Darwin, it
'being highly esteemed there for its white-ant resisting prop-
'erties!"

The only trees mentioned in the Report seem to be Red Gum, Cypress Pine, and Western Pine. What particular species even, these may be, is not stated. It is impossible to form any idea of the amount of timber felled, and firewood is not so much as mentioned, except in the statement of revenue. In fact, the balance sheet in the only statement furnished, and that contains no details more useful than the number of permits issued and the money received. The annual revenue appears to be about £8,000, while the expenditure on staff and works amounts to double (?), Salaries are £9,600, Travelling expenses £2,400, plantations £1,000, and the balance is incidentals. The revenue however appears to be stated for one year only, while the expenditure covers two years. On the whole, the Forest Branch seems to be managed in a thoroughly slipshod manner, and the forests even worse. It is sad to see a colony of the pretensions of New South Wales thus squandering its wealth, and the sooner a proper Forest Law is introduced, and a skilled Forest Department established, the better it will be for the Colony.

The remainder of the Report is taken up with a number of minor subjects which are regarded as of quite equal importance with forestry. There is the Report of the Pathologist, discussing laboratories, color and hardness of wheat grains, sheep flukes, citrus diseases, manures, experimental farms, orchards, students, &c., &c. The Report of the Chemist deals with soils, manure, quality of wheats, wines, bacteria, &c. The Entomologist mentions a few insects. The Fruit Expert, Viticultural Expert, Dairy Expert, Editor of the Agricultural Gazette, Tobacco Expert, Museum Officer, &c., all have their say. The results of experimental farms are given. The Board for Exports takes up the greater part of the room. No doubt a large amount of good work has been done in every branch except Forestry, but the large number of matters,

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many of them trifling, treated of in some 66 pages, render the Report superficial and useless to anyone. It is not even clear whether the Forestry portion is written by the "Government Botanist," whose Report follows it, or by some other person. New South Wales officials may congratulate themselves that they have not to keep an Indian set of accounts, with some 60 odd single and double-page statements as a solid foundation. They want some Secretariat Babus and Comptroller Generals over them, to show how many different forms can be filled up with a single small transaction.

VI.—EXTRACTS, NOTES AND QUERIES.

The Conservation of Soil Moisture and Economy in the use of Irrigation Water

By E. W. Hilgard and R. H. Loughridge.

The exceptionally dry season of 1897-8, coupled with the early cessation of rains in the spring of 1897, have brought about in California a more extended failure of cereals and pasturage, and shallow-rooted crops generally, than in any year since the State became a prominently agricultural one, the season of 1876-7 being the nearest to carry with it a similar deficiency in crop production. It has been the effort of the Experiment Station to utilize the present unusual season for the study of the limits of endurance of drought on the part of the several crop plants, and with it to determine the minimum of water that will suffice for their satisfactory growth in the several soils. While far from completed, this work (involving many hundreds of determinations of moisture in soils) has already yielded some results which render it desirable that they should be placed before the farmers and discussed at once, in order to provide against a recurrence of avoidable injury in the future.

Amount of Water required by crops.—It is not very generally understood how large an amount of water is required for the production even of fair crops; for the maximum of possible product is rarely obtained on the large scale, because it is not often that *all* conditions are at their best at any one time and locality. But from numerous observations, made both in Europe and in the Eastern United States, it has been found that from 300 to over 500 tons of water are on the average required to

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produce one ton of dry vegetable matter. In Wisconsin, King found that a two-ton crop of oat hay required over one thousand tons of water per acre, equal to about nine inches of rainfall. The average rate for field crops at large is given by European observers at 325 times the weight of dry matter produced, being at the rate of about three inches of rainfall actually evaporated through the plant.

These data should enable us to estimate the adequacy of the moisture contained in the soil at the beginning of the dry season to mature the crop, provided we make due allowance for any growth already made at the time, and provided also that the estimates as to the water-requirements derived from the experience of the countries of summer rains (the humid regions) hold good for the arid region also. Whether or not this can be assumed, is among the points our experiments are designed to determine. The surprisingly successful growth and bearing especially of deciduous trees, without irrigation, despite a drought of five or six *months* in the "Franciscan climate." * has led to an impression that a less amount of water may suffice under arid conditions. For in the East, as many *weeks* of drought and intense heat would frequently suffice to destroy the crop.

Probable cause of this endurance of drought.—Doubtless the main cause of this remarkable endurance is to be found in the *much deeper rooting of all plants in arid climates*; whereby not only a much larger bulk of moist soil is at their command, but the roots are withdrawn from the injurious effects of the hot, dry surface and air.

This deeper range of the roots is not the result of foresight on the part of the plant. It could not occur on Eastern soils, because of the intervention, in the great majority of cases, of difficultly penetrable subsoils; from which, moreover, plants could draw but little nourishment on account of their "rawness." In the arid region, as a rule, subsoils in the Eastern sense do not exist; the soil mass is practically the same for several feet and in the prevalent soils is very readily penetrable to great depths. This, summarily speaking is due to the slight formation of clay, and the rarity of heavy rains, in the arid region. And this easy penetrability of the soil implies, moreover, that being well aerated, the depths of the soil are not "raw," as in the East; and therefore that the "subsoil," such as it is, may fearlessly be turned up as deeply as the farmer is willing to go with the plow, without danger of injuring the next season's crop, in all lands that are well drained; as, by reason of their depth and perviousness, is the case with most California soils.

* This name has been felicitously applied by Powell to the climate of middle and southern California which is characterized by the concentration of rains within a winter which is mild enough to constitute a growing season, while the summer is practically rainless.

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It may easily be shown that while a shallow root system will stand in absolute need of frequent rains or irrigation to sustain its vitality, a deep one may brave prolonged drought with impunity, being independent of surface conditions, and able to perform all its functions out of reach of stress from lack of moisture.* It is equally clear that it is to the farmer's interest to favor, to the utmost, this deep penetration of the roots, both in the preparation and tillage of the ground, and in the use of irrigation water. For if the latter is used too frequently or too abundantly, the salutary habit of deep rooting will be abandoned by the plant, and it will, as in the East, be dependent upon frequent rain or irrigation; and also, owing to the small bulk of soil upon which it can draw for its nourishment, upon frequent and abundant fertilization.

Eastern immigrants as well as a large proportion of California farmers do not realize the privilege they possess of having a triple and quadruple acreage of arable soil under their feet, over and above the area for which their deeds call; and they tenaciously continue to adhere to precautions and practices which however salutary and necessary in the region of summer rains, do not apply to this climate. The shallow plowing so persistently practised, results in the formation of a "plowsole" that plays the part of the Eastern subsoil in preventing root penetration; limiting their range for moisture and plant food, and thus naturally causing crops to succumb to a slight stress of season which ought to have passed without injury, had the natural conditions been taken into proper consideration.

Roots follow moisture.—Very striking examples of deep rooting as the result of vertical moisture penetration can be observed in some of our native trees, which, while naturally at home on moist ground, are nevertheless sometimes found forming luxuriant clumps on the slopes and even summits of our coast ranges and foothills. If we examine the ground where this occurs in the case of California laurel we will generally find that the soil in which they grow is underlaid by slate or shale standing on edge, into the crevices of which the roots penetrate wedging them open, while themselves flattering out, and thus penetrating to moisture at considerable depth. The same may be observed in the case of the erect "bedrock" or foothill slates of the Sierra, on which native as well as fruit trees flourish in very shallow soils, sometimes reaching permanent moisture at the depth of ten or more feet below the surface. It can readily be observed during rains that there is comparatively little run off from the surface of these lands underlaid by vertical shales.

On the same principle, the grape vines which bear some of the choicest raisins of Malaga on the arid coastward slopes, are made to supply themselves with moisture, without irrigation, by

* The moisture determination under a measured fruit tree gave, to the depth of eight feet, an aggregate amount of water of 1,058 tons per acre.

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opening around them large, funnel-shaped pits, which remain open in winter so as to catch the rain, causing it to penetrate downward along the tap-root of the vine, in clay shale quite similar to that of the California Coast Ranges, and like this latter, almost vertically on edge. Yet on these same slopes scarcely any natural vegetation now finds a foothold.

Similarly the "ryots" of parts of India water their crops by applying to each plant immediately around the stem such scanty measure of the precious fluid as they have taken from wells, often of considerable depth, which form their only source of water-supply. Perhaps in imitation of these, an industrious farmer has practised a similar system on the high benches of Kern River, and has successfully grown excellent fruit for years, on land that originally would grow nothing but cactus. Sub-irrigation from pipes has been applied in a similar manner.

The principle flowing from the above is simply that the most economical mode of using irrigation water is to put it "where it will do the most good," close to the stem of the plant or trunk of the tree and let it soak downward so as to form a moist path for the roots to follow to the greatest possible depth. It is this deep *penetration to natural moisture*, as a matter of fact, which enables the small quantities supplied to produce such marked effects.

Basin irrigation.—It will be noticed that this principle is practically the same as that of the irrigation of orchards, which was originally largely practised in California, but has now been mostly abandoned for furrow irrigation. The latter has been almost universally adopted, partly because it requires a great deal less hand-labor, partly under the impression that the whole of the soil of the orchard is thus most thoroughly utilized; partly also because of the injurious effect upon trees produced at times by basin irrigation.

The explanation of such injurious effects is, essentially, that cold irrigation water depresses too much the temperature of the earth immediately around the roots, and thus hinders active vegetation to an injurious extent, sometimes so as to bring about the dropping of the fruit. This, of course, is a very serious objection, to obviate which it might be necessary to reservoir the water so as to allow it to warm before being applied to the trees. In furrow irrigation the amount of soil soaked with the water is so great that the latter is soon effectually warmed up, besides not coming in contact too intimately with main roots of the tree; along which the water soaks very readily when applied to the trunk, thus affecting their temperature much more directly. It is for the fruit-grower to determine which consideration should prevail in a given case. If the water-supply be scant and warm, the most effectual use that can be made of it is to apply it immediately around the trunk of the tree, in a circular trench dug for

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the purpose. When, on the contrary, irrigation water is abundant and its temperature low, it will be preferable to practice furrow irrigation, or possibly even flooding. As to the more complete use of the soil under the latter two methods, it must be remembered that while this is the case in a *horizontal* direction, yet unless irrigation is practised sparingly under the furrow system, it may easily happen that the gain made horizontally is more than offset by a corresponding loss in the *vertical* penetration of the root-system. This is amply apparent in some of the irrigated orange groves of Southern California, where the fine roots of the trees fill the surface soil as do the roots of maize in a corn field of the Mississippi States; so that the plow can hardly be run without turning them up and under. In these same orchards it will be observed, in digging down, that at a depth of a few feet the soil is too water-soaked to permit of the proper exercise of the root functions, and that the roots existing there are either inactive or diseased. That in such cases abundant irrigation and abundant fertilization alone can maintain an orchard in bearing condition, is a matter of course; and there can be no question that a great deal of the constant cry for the fertilization of orchards in the irrigated sections is due quite as much to the shallowness of rooting induced by over-irrigation, as to any really necessary exhaustion of the land. When the roots are induced to come to and remain at the surface, within a surface layer of eighteen to twenty inches it naturally becomes necessary to feed these roots abundantly, both with moisture and with plant food. This has as naturally led to an over-estimate of the requirements of the trees in both respects. Had deep rooting been encouraged at first, instead of over-stimulating the growth by surface fertilization and frequent irrigation, some delay in bearing would have been amply compensated for by less of current outlay for fertilizers, and less liability to injury from frequently unavoidable delay, or from inadequacy of irrigation.

CONSERVATION OF SOIL MOISTURE.—Alongside of economy in the use of irrigation water, the conservation of the moisture imparted to the soil either by rains or irrigation is most important; critically so where irrigation is unavailable.

Utilization of winter rains, and winter irrigation.—However strong is the popular demand for storage of the winter rainfall and flood waters, too many do not appreciate the importance of the storage they can command without the use of reservoirs, within their own soil mass. While there is a well-grounded objection to subjecting plowed land to the leaching action of the abundant rains in the humid region, no such objection holds in the case of lands lying within the limits of 20 to 25 inches of annual rainfall. Here the absorption of the winter rains should be favored to the utmost, for the run-off is mostly a dead loss. Fall plowing wherever the land is not naturally adequately absorbent, and is not thereby rendered liable to washing away, is

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a very effectual mode of utilizing the winter's moisture to the utmost, so as to bring about the junction of the season's moisture with that of the previous season, which is generally considered as being a condition precedent for crop production in dry years. The same of course holds true of winter irrigation; the frequent omission of which in presence of a plentiful water supply at that season is a prolific cause of avoidable crop failures. Moistening the ground to a considerable depth by winter irrigation is a very effective mode of promoting deep rooting, and will thus stand in lieu of later irrigations, which, being more scant, tend to keep the roots near the surface.

Knowledge of the subsoil.—It cannot be too strongly insisted upon that in our arid climate, farmers should make themselves most thoroughly acquainted with their subsoil down the depth of at least four, but preferably six or eight feet. This knowledge, important enough in the East, is doubly so here, since all root functions are and must be carried on at much greater depths. It is hardly excusable that a business man calling himself a farmer should omit the most elementary precaution of examining his subsoil before planting orchard or vineyard, and should at the end of five years find his trees a dead loss in consequence of an unsuitable subsoil. Similarly, no irrigator should be ignorant of the time or amount of water it takes to wet his soil to a certain depth. We have lately seen a whole community suffering from the visible decline of the thrift of its fruit trees, which occurred despite of what was considered abundant irrigation; *i.e.*, allowing the water to run for a given length of time, deemed to be sufficient. Yet on being called in to investigate the causes of the trouble, the station staff found that the irrigation water had failed to penetrate during the allotted time to any beneficial extent, so that the trees were, in the main, suffering from lack of moisture—a fact that could have been verified by any one of the owners concerned, by simply boring or digging a hole or two. But no one had thought of doing so, and all kinds of mysterious causes were conjectured to be at work in the suffering orchards. A definite knowledge of the rapidity with which irrigation water penetrates downwards and sideways in his soil should form a part of the mental equipment of every irrigator, particularly in arranging his head ditches. For in sandy lands it may easily happen that when these are too far apart, the water near the head ditch is already wasting into the country drainage at the depth of ten or twelve feet, before any has reached the end of the furrows, or has wetted the lower half adequately. Many such cases come under our observation, and such ignorance of the conditions governing one of the most important factors of success is hardly excusable in any one. Nor is the quality of the water used indifferent in this connection; for waters containing alkali will fail to penetrate the soil as quickly as would ordinary stream waters.

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Preventing evaporation.—But supposing the moisture to have reached the depths of the soil, whether from rains or from irrigation, it is essential that proper means be employed for retaining it in the land, and especially to prevent evaporation. That this is best accomplished by a mulch on the surface, and that the best mulch for the purpose, which need not be hauled on or off and is always ready, is a surface layer of loose, well-tilled soil, is now pretty well understood by all. But the extent to which the presence or absence of such a non-evaporating layer influences plant growth and fruit production in a critical time, is not so fully appreciated. Our plates * give an illustrative example of trees and fruit grown this season on adjacent fields, with only a lane between, the soil and all natural conditions being absolutely identical; the only difference being the presence and absence of cultivation. In the present case the cultivation was omitted on principle by owner, who considered cultivation superfluous on the loose, generous soil of Alameda creek; while his neighbor, across the way, held the opposite belief, and had this season cultivated to an extra depth to conserve moisture. The cultural results show a remarkable difference and need no comment, although it may be of interest to mention that the year's growth on the one hand was over three feet, on the other barely three inches. The determination of the moisture held by the soil in July to the depth of six feet gave the following results:

Depth in Soil.	Cultivated.		Uncultivated.	
	Per Cent.	Tons per Acre.	Per Cent.	Tons per Acre.
First Foot ...	6·4	128	4·3	86
Second Foot ...	5·8	116	4·4	88
Third Foot ...	6·4	128	3·9	78
Fourth Foot ...	6·5	130	5·1	102
Fifth Foot ...	6·7	134	3·4	68
Sixth Foot ...	6·0	120	4·5	90
Total for six feet ...	6·3	756	4·2	512

The difference of 244 tons per acre of ground shown by the analyses is quite sufficient, according to the data given at

* We regret that we have been unable to reproduce the plates. *Hon. Ed.*

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the beginning of this bulletin, to account for the observed difference in the cultural result. The cause of this difference was that in the *uncultivated* field there was a compacted surface layer several inches in thickness, which forcibly abstracted the moisture from the substrata and evaporated it from its surface; while the loose surface soil on the *cultivated* ground was unable to take any moisture from the denser subsoil. This is well illustrated by the familiar fact that while a dry brick will suck a wet sponge dry, a dry sponge (corresponding to the loose surface soil) is unable to take any water from a wet brick. Besides, the tilled surface soil forms a non-conducting layer protecting the subsoil from the sun's heat and the dryness of the air.

In the East, where this principle is well understood, it is considered that a surface layer three inches in thickness is sufficient to afford effective protection. But what is adequate in the region of summer rains is quite insufficient in California and in the arid region generally. It takes fully twice the thickness mentioned, and preferably more, to afford protection against the drought and heat lasting five or six months at a stretch. Here again we find an important point in which our practice must differ from that of the East and of the Old World.

The beneficial effects of summer fallow in California are assuredly due quite as much to the conservation of moisture brought about by the tilled surface layer, as by the weathering of the soil to which the efficacy of the fallow is commonly ascribed. Witness the fact that weeds come up freely on summer-fallow as late as August, when unplowed land is as bare as a barn floor.

Similarly on our mostly new and unexhausted lands, the bad effects of weed growth are doubtless due fully as much to the waste of moisture going on through their leaves as to the competition with the crop in plant food. Hence all good orchardists are very careful about keeping their ground clean in summer; but it must not be forgotten that by doing so they quickly deplete their lands of vegetable matter, which requires systematic replacement if production is to continue normally. Yet of the two evils, the loss of moisture is more to be dreaded, and very generally in practice the more difficult to remedy.

Forestry vs. Tree-Planting.

By B. E. Fernow,

Director, N. Y. State College of Forestry.

The treelessness of the prairie and plains country naturally suggested the planting of trees to a people who had learned, in more favoured sections, the comfort, the beauty and the value of an arborescent growth. The wind-break effect of a

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shelter belt, the shade of a grove, were soon appreciated, by the early settler, and finally, the hope of securing at least firewood supplies, if not working timber, induced him to resort to the unfamiliar occupation of planting groves

One would think that the incentive to secure these well-known comforts would have been sufficient to stimulate every newcomer to do his share in improving the landscape and the local climate around his house, barn and fields by tree-planting, but so sluggish is human nature that some additional stimulus seemed necessary. The Federal Government, with a most liberal hand, gave away thousands of acres of land to induce settlers to improve their homes by timber-planting, and private effort added the stimulus of the emotions, on which Arbor Day is founded.

Yet even so, with a quarter century or more of effort there is still need, it seems, of making tree-planting attractive in the plains. I do not propose to discuss the reasons, they are mainly, expense, frequent failure on account of unfavourable climate, and ignorance as to proper procedure, and finally the discouragement which comes from a non-fulfilment of mistaken expectations, which the claims of the stimulators had aroused.

The tree-planting movement of the Western prairie and plains States, however good it has been for those States in stimulating arboriculture, has done much harm to the forestry movement in the Eastern States, where some good but unenlightened enthusiasts confounded the objects, aims and methods of arboriculture in the plains with the objects, aims and methods of forestry in the forested States. The problems in these States are entirely different and the methods of forestry are entirely different from the methods of arboriculture as practised in the treeless plains.

Here all planting is done for comfort rather than for material results. The man who expects to do much more than raise firewood, such as the Eastern States will have always more than enough, even under the worst mismanagement, has not studied the relation of tree-growth to climate. Even if he should succeed in growing small dimension material for certain purposes, he may never expect to enter the great lumber market, whose demands are for sawlogs to the amount of a half billion dollars or so a year. If there were no other reasons the expense would forbid.

Forests—*lumber forests*—grow and will always grow, in humid regions, and forestry—the rational management of forests for wood supplies—will be practised in those regions and on those soils which nature has best fitted to produce wood crops, namely, the poor soils in the humid regions, leaving the good soils to agriculture.

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But forestry is not tree-planting, although occasionally the forester is forced to use the planting tool. The axe is the forester's tool, just as it is the tool of the lumberman. It is by cutting trees that the forest is not only being utilized but preserved, provided the cutting is done properly according to the principles which forestry teaches. Just as mankind preserves itself by the constant renewal in the young, so the forest is preserved by the removal of the old trees grown to useful size and the attendant renewal of the young crop.

Where, to be sure, the lumberman's injudicious use of the axe and the fire following his operations, have given over the soil to the weeds in tree form, cutting alone may not always remedy the conditions; nevertheless tree-planting, expensive and hazardous, is the *ultima ratio* of the forester.

The tree-planters of the plains have, for a long time, clouded the issues of the forestry movement in the East and West by their gospel of arboriculture and Arbor Days; they have antagonized the lumbermen, the owners of our woodlands, without whose work they could not have settled the treeless plains and built their houses and barns, and thus they have retarded, unwillingly, to be sure, the development of forestry.

The times are changing; owners of woodlands begin to see that forestry is not tree-planting but tree-cutting, and that when the axe is laid on the forest tree, forestry must begin, not when the tree is cut.

Not only are now several firms of lumbermen employing foresters to direct their cutting of trees, but the State of New York has established a school, where the art of forestry may be studied in all its branches.

Here rational tree-cutting, as well as rational tree-planting, reforestation of denuded hill as well as grove planting in the prairie and plain, and the difference between the two, will be taught.—(*The Forester.*)

The "Shinia" Leaves of Cyprus.

A despatch has been recently received from the Chief Secretary of Cyprus enclosing translations of pamphlets by M. P. Gennadius, Director of Agriculture in that island, on the industry connected with the cultivation of the shinia and laurel shrubs. *Pistacia lentiscus* is a shrub that grows abundantly in most parts of Cyprus, and is called in the island "shinia;" a variety of this shinia is the mastic shrub of Scio, the leaves only of which have a commercial value, serving as a tanning and painting material. From the wood of the shrub, charcoal of good quality is made, and from its seed, which is eaten by

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goats and pigs, oil can be extracted, which is fit, not only for burning purposes, but, in case of necessity, for food as well. For some time, shinia leaves were exported from Cyprus to England in small quantities by the Cyprus Company, but the principal market for shinia leaves is Palermo, in Sicily, to which port there is an annual exportation from Tunis of 10 000 tons; they are there used chiefly for the adulteration of sumach (*Rhus coriaria*), which is grown in large quantities in Sicily, and is thence exported to England and France. A good quality of shinia leaves is also consumed at Lyons as a dyeing material for silk stuffs.

The crop is gathered during the months of April to September, the leafy branches of the shrub being cut off, laid in heaps on the ground, and left there until dry. This takes place generally in four or five days, during which the heaps are left undisturbed, in order that as few leaves as possible should come in direct contact with the sun, which bleaches and overdries them, and thus depreciates their value. After being dried, the branches are beaten with a flail to detach the leaves, which are then packed in sacks for the market. Before the beating takes place the top branches which cover each heap are removed and thrown away, because the leaves of these, having been bleached and burned up by the sun, are not only useless, but also injurious, when mixed with the rest of the produce. Shinia leaves should not be gathered after rain, as an inferior quality is then obtained.

Another shrub, the laurel of Apollo, *Laurus nobilis*, is a most useful plant, its wood, leaves, and fruit being all available for various purposes. The wood, although not very strong, serves, nevertheless, for structural purposes and cabinet-making, it is also used for fuel. The fruit resembles small olives, and when pressed, yields a greenish oil as thick as butter, and exhaling a strong, pleasant odour. This oil, well known to commerce as "laurel oil," is used in pharmacy and in perfumery, and is a protective against insects. The leaves serve as seasoning for cooked or preserved meats and fish, for which purpose they are dried and sold, or are exported to other countries where the tree itself will not flourish. A considerable exportation of laurel leaves from Greece and the East is annually made to Austria (through Trieste) and the United States of America (through New York. The leaves are also used for packing with choice kinds of raisins and figs, in order to impart to those fruits the fragrance of the laurel oil, as well as to protect them against injurious insects. In veterinary surgery laurel leaves are considered to be an excellent external remedy against various cattle parasites, a decoction thereof being used for washing the parts of the animals most attacked by flies and other parasites. The laurel shrub is propagated only through

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its seeds, which are sown as fresh as possible direct in the soil, and not in pots or boxes, as is the case with the seeds of some other plants. It prospers in a rather temperate soil, such as that of the southern range of the mountains of Cyprus, and, where soil and climate are suitable, will begin to bear fruit four or five years after the seed has been sown.—(*Imperial Institute Journal.*)

A Useful Diary.

We have to thank the "Indian and Eastern Engineer for a very useful diary for 1899 just received and which they ask us to notice. The have much pleasure in saying that the Tables of Indian weights and measures and other information given, add greatly to the value of the book.

VII.—TIMBER AND PRODUCE TRADE.

Churchill and Sim's Circular.

EAST INDIAN TEAK.—The deliveries for the first ten months of this year have amounted to 15,572 loads as compared with 15,136 loads for the same months of 1897. In October they have been 1,420 loads and in October last year they were 1,979 loads. This market has felt the benefit of the strong position indicated by a comparison of the probable demands for the wood with the available supply in the near future, and prices have crept up a point or two during the month.

ROSEWOOD.—EAST INDIA.—Finds buyers at good prices.

SATINWOOD.—EAST INDIA.—For finely figured logs values are well maintained, but for plain wood there is not much demand.

EBONY.—EAST INDIA.—Only prime wood, of good sizes, should be shipped.

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PRICE CURRENT.

Indian Teak, per load ...	...	£ 1	to £ 16
Rosewood „ ton ...	...	£ 9	to £ 10
Satinwood „ sup. foot	...	5 *d.*	to 12 *d.*
Ebony „ ton ...	...	£ 6	to £ 8

Denny, Mott and Dickson's Wood Market Report,

LONDON, 1ST NOVEMBER, 1898.

TEAK.—The landings in the Docks in London during October were 1,289 loads as against 2,124 loads for the corresponding month in 1897. The deliveries from Docks to consumers last month were 1,447 loads, as against 1,946 loads for October, 1897; and the London stocks now show as follows:—

8,437	Loads of	Logs,	as against	10,561	Loads at	the same date last year.
3,511	„	Planks	„	2,506	„	„ „
40	„	Blocks	„	15	„	„ „
Total 11,988	Loads			13,082	Loads	„ „

The demand has been fairly satisfactory notwithstanding the increasing prices. The advices from Burmah and Siam increasingly point to next year's supplies not only being very costly, but as almost certain to fall short of the likely European requirements, if the latter are to be judged by the consumption of this year. Much will depend upon the continuance of the demand for warships, both English and Foreign. Four first-class battle ships and one cruiser are now being tendered for by private shipbuilding yards, and should consume at least 4,000 loads of teak, which will serve to show the importance of the Naval factor in considering the problem of next year's consumption. It is for large users of teak for ordinary commercial purposes to consider the advisability of buying well forward, before the question of a short import assumes an acute stage.

Demand in October was more wide-spread than during August and September, but the volume of business during November and December must largely increase to justify the hopes formed for a very large consumption for the last quarter of the year.

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MARKET RATES OF PRODUCE.

Tropical Agriculturist. November, 1898.

Cardamoms	per	lb.	3s.	to	3s. 2d.
Croton Seeds	,,	cwt.	72s. 6d.	to	82s. 6d.
Cutch	,,	,,	9s. 3d.	to	32s. 6d.
Gum Arabic, Madras	,,	,,	27s. 6d.	to	35s.
,, Kino	,,	,,	10s.		(Nominally)
India rubber, Assam	,,	lb.	2s. 9d.	to	2s. 10d.
,, Burma	,,	,,	2s. 9d.	to	3s.
Myrabolams, Madras	,,	cwt.	4s. 6d.	to	6s.
,, Bombay	,,	,,	5s.	to	5s. 3d.
,, Jubbulpore	,,	,,	4s. 6d.	to	8s.
,, Calcutta	,,	,,	3s. 6d.	to	5s. 6d.
Nux Vomica	,,	,,	8s.	to	10s.
Oil, Lemon Grass	,,	lb.	3½ d.		
Sandalwood, Logs	,,	ton	£30	to	£50.
,, Chips	,,	,,	£4	to	£5.
Sapanwood	,,	,,	£4	to	£5.
Seedlac	,,	cwt.	60s.	to	68s.
Tamarind	,,	,,	4s. 6d.	to	6s.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1.—Gazette of India.

2nd December 1897.—No. 1027F-78-2.—With reference to the Bengal Government's Notification No. 3474 For., dated the 22nd ultimo, Mr. W. F. Perreé, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred to Burma in the interests of the public service.

3rd December, 1897.—No. 1033-F.—126-10.—Messrs. R. S. Troup, S F. L. Cappel, F. H. Todd, H. W. Watson and J. J. Rorie, who have been appointed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State to the Forest Department of India, are appointed to be Assistant Conservators of the 2nd grade, with effect from the 15th November, 1897, and are posted to Burma.

3rd December, 1897.—No. 1035-F.—221-7.—On return from the privilege leave granted him in Notification No. 871-F., dated the 8th September last, Mr. J. A. McKee, Conservator of the 3rd (officiating 2nd) grade, resumed charge of the Southern Forest Circle, Central Provinces, in the forenoon of the 30th November 1897, from Mr. W. P. Thomas, Officiating Conservator, 3rd grade, who reverted to his substantive appointment of Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.

Mr. A. Smythies, Conservator of the 3rd grade, also reverted to his substantive grade from the same date.

3rd December, 1897.—No. 1038-F.—103-14.—Privilege leave for two months and five days, under Articles 291 and 282 (ii) of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr J. Nisbet, Officiating Conservator in charge of the Eastern Forest Circle, Upper Burma, with effect from the 21st October, 1897.

Mr. A. Smythies, Conservator in charge of the Western Forest Circle, is placed in charge of the Eastern Forest Circle in addition to his own duties, until further orders.

2.—Madras Gazette.

7th December, 1897.—*Leave.*—K. S. Kistnamachari, Forest Ranger, Fifth Grade, is granted privilege leave on medical certificate for forty-five days with effect from 3rd November, 1897.

10th December 1897.—No. 592.—Mr. C. duPré Thornton, District Forest Officer, Godavari, is granted furlough for nine months, with effect from or after the 10th February, 1898, under article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations.

10th December 1897.—*Confirmation.*—K. G. Subba Row, Ranger, Sixth Grade, sub. *pro tem* in the Salem district, is confirmed in that grade from 1st December, 1897.

10th December 1897.—No. 597.—Postings.

No.	Name and designation of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
1	Mr. F. C. L. Cowley-Brown, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	South Coimbatore.	Acting District Forest Officer.	During the absence of Mr. H. A. Gass on special leave, or until further orders.

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11*th December* 1897.—No. 594.—

No.	Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
1	Mr. C. E. Brasier	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Acting	With effect from the date of his return from furlough and until further orders. *Note.*—With effect from date of Mr. Cherry's return to duty. The acting promotion of Mr. H. J. A. Porter to the 1st grade notified in the *Fort St. George Gazette* of 2nd November last, will cease.
2	,, H. J. A. Porter ...	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Do.	From the date of Mr. Cherry's return to duty and during the absence of Mr. Hayne on furlough, or until further orders.
3	,, A. W. Lushington	Do.	Do.	Do.	From the date of Mr. Porter's return to duty and during the absence of Mr. Hadfield on furlough, or until further orders.
4	,, T. P. Peake ...	Do.	Do.	Do.	From the date of Mr. Porter's return to duty and during the absence of Mr. Stanbrough on furlough, or until further orders.
5	,, F. A. Lodge ...	Do.	Do.	Do.	*Vice* No. 1.
6	,, C. D. McArthy ...	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 2.
7	,, C. D. P. Thornton	Do.	Do.	Do.	*Vice* No. 3.
8	,, A B. Jackson ...	Do.	Do.	Do.	*Vice* No. 4.
9	,, R. McIntosh ...	Do.	Do.	Do.	*Vice* No. 5.
10	,, J. L. MacCarthy O'Leary.	Ast. Cons. of Forests, 1st Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.		*Vice* No. 6.
11	,, H. A. Latham	Do.	Do.	Do.	*Vice* No. 7.
12	,, S. Cox ...	Do.	Do.	Do.	*Vice* No. 8.
13	,, H. F. A. Wood ...	Do,	Do.	Do.	*Vice* No. 9.

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No.	Name of officer.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
14	Mr. W. W. Batchelor	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 10.
15	,, F. Foulkes	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Do.	During the absence of Mr. C. D. McArthy on privilege leave.
16	,, H. Tireman ...	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 15.
17	,, H. J. A. Porter ..	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade, and acting in the 2nd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Do.	During the absence of Mr. H. A. Gass on special leave, or until further orders.
18	,, J. S. Battie ...	Deupty Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 17.
19	,, F. Foulkes	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 18.
20	,, H. Tireman ...	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 19.
21	,, W. W. Batchelor	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade, and acting in the 1st Grade.	Do.	Do.	During the absence of Mr. H. B. Bryant on privilege leave.

N.B.—Messrs. J. S. Battie, F. Foulkes and H. Tireman revert to their p rmanent grades from the date of Mr. Cherry's return to duty.

11*th December* 1897.—No. 598.—Transfer.

Name and designation of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
Mr. C. B. Dawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Tinnevelly	Direction, Southern Circle.	To do duty under the Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle.

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3.—Bombay Gazette.

4th December 1887.—No. 5886.—Mr. V. D. P. Rebeiro, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests and Divisional Forest Officer, Bijapur, availed himself of the two months' privilege leave sanctioned in Government Resolution No. 8294, dated 13th November, 1897, on the afternoon of the 14th November, 1897, handing over charge of the Bijapur Division to Mr. W. R. Woodrow, Divisional Forest Officer, Dharwar.

8th December 1897.—No. 8936.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments :—

Mr. J. H. Clabby, to be Divisional Forest Officer, Bijapur.

Mr. V. D. P. Rebeiro, on return from leave, to be under the Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle.

12th December 1897.—No. 4999.—Messrs. L. S. Osmaston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, and A. T. Shuttleworth, Conservator of Forests, C. C., respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Poona, on the 4th instant, in the afternoon.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

20th December 1897.—No. 3904.—Mr. T. J. Pocock, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Singhbhum Division, is transferred to the Sundarbans, to which he is attached.

28th December 1897.—No. 3998.—Mr. E. P. Stebbing, Assistant Conservator of Forests, returned from three months' privilege leave and took over charge of the Chittagong Division on the 14th December, 1897.

Consequent on the return of Mr. Stebbing from privilege leave, the following reversion takes place with effect from 6th December, 1897 :—

Mr. Farrington, Assistant Conservator of Forests, officiating 1st grade, to revert to Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade.

5.—N.-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

10th December 1897.—No. $\frac{1112.}{\text{VII}-445\text{-B}-12.}$ The Hon'ble the Lieutenant-Governor and Chief Commissioner is pleased to declare the undermentioned gentlemen to have passed the Departmental Examination of Junior Officers held on the 18th October, 1897 and following days, in the subjects specified below :—

IV. FOREST OFFICERS.

Forest Law.

By Higher Stnndard.

Mr. E. L. Haslett.
„ F. F. R. Channer.
„ W. A. R. Doxat.
Babu Parmashwaridin.
„ Kamta Parshad.

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PROCEDURE AND ACCOUNTS.

By Higher Standard.

Mr. F. F. R. Channer.
„ W. A. R. Doxat.
Babu Parmashwaridin.
„ Kamta Parshad.

By Lower Standard.

Mr. E. L. Haslett.

LAND REVENUE SYSTEMS.

Mr. F. F. R. Channer.
„ W. A. R. Doxat.
Babu Parmashwaridin.
„ Kamta Parshad.

6.—PUNJAB GAZETTE.

7th December 1897.—No. $\frac{646}{\text{A. L. No. 36.}}$—The following changes have taken place in the list of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces with effect from the dates specified against each :—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from	REMARKS.
Mr. W. P. Thomas	Officiating Conservator	Deputy Conservator 1st Grade	30th November 1897.	Consequent on the return of Mr. McKee, Conservator of Forests, from privilege leave.
Mr. E. A. Down	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade.	Deputy Conservator 2nd Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. F. C. Hicks	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Deputy Conservator 3rd Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. C. Somers Smith ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Provincial Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. A. St. V. Beechey ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade	Ditto.	

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24*th December* 1897.—No.—$\frac{678}{\text{A. L. No. 38}}$.—The following changes have taken place in the List of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces with effect from the dates specified against each :—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from	Remarks.
Mr. R. M. Williamson ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	16th October 1897.	Consequent on Mr. G. S. Hart's officiating as Assistant Inspector-General or Forests.
Mr. W. Mayes ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. J. H. Lace .	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	3rd November, 1897.	Consequent on the return, of Mr. F. O. Lemarchand from privilege leave.
Mr. A. E. Lowrie	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Provincial Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. R. M. Williamson ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. W. Mayes ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. W. P. Thomas ...	Officiating Conservator	Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade	30th November, 1897.	Consequent on the return of Mr. McKee Conservator of Forests, from privilege leave.
Mr. E. A. Down	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Ditto	
Mr. F. C. Hicks	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade,	Ditto.	
Mr. E. M. Coventry ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. C. M. McCrie ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Provincial Assistant Conservator 1st Grade.	Ditto.	

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The above Notification is published in supersession of Notifications No. 611 A. L. No. 34 dated 20th November, 1897, and No. 646 A. L. No. 36. dated 7th December, 1897.

7th December 1897.—No. 679 A. L. No. 36.—The following changes have taken place in the List of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces with effect from the dates specified against each :—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from	Remarks.
Mr. H. A. Hoghton ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Deputy Conservator 3rd Grade.	11th December 1897.	Consequent on the return of Mr. G. F. Taylor from privilege leave.
Mr. C. Somers Smith ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. A. St. V. Beechey ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade	Ditto.	

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

23rd July 1897.—No. 7.—Fahidad Khan, Temporary Ranger in the Jubbulpore Forest Division, is granted three months' privilege leave, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the 22nd June, 1897, inclusive.

23rd July 1897.—No. 8.—Abdul Ali, Forest Ranger, 5th grade, of the Hoshangabad Forest Division, is permitted to retire from Government service, with effect from the 16th April, 1897.

6th August 1897.—No. 3656.—Mr. F. S. Barker, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is granted three months' leave, in extension of the extraordinary leave granted him by Order No. 1055, dated the 19th February, 1897.

14th August 1897.—No. 75.—Mr. Madho Rao, Forest Ranger, 5th grade, in the Raipur Forest Division, is granted one month's privilege leave with effect from the 26th August, 1897

18th September 1897.—No. 87.—Mr. Moreshwar Rao, Forest Ranger, 6th grade, in the Chanda Forest Division, is granted one month's leave without pay with effect from the afternoon of the 15th September, 1897.

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22*nd November* 1897.—No. 32.—The following transfers of Rangers are ordered in the interests of the public service :—

Mr. Bhagwant Narayan Deshpande, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, sub. *pro tem.*, on special duty in the Hosangabad Division, to the Nimar Division.

Mr. T. Bapurao, Ranger, 4th grade. from the Hosangabad to the Mandla Division.

Mr. Jairam Raghunath, Ranger, 5th grade, from the Mandla to the Hoshangabad Division.

Mr. W. J. Anthony, Forest Ranger, 4th grade, and Working-Plans Inspector, Narsinghpur Division, to the Hoshangabad Division, in the same capacity.

Mr. Chintaman Wishwanath Sarvate, Forest Ranger, 5th grade, from the Direction to the Narsinghpur Forest Division as Working-Plans Inspector, *vice* Mr. W. J. Anthony, transferred.

26*th November* 1897.—No. 33.—Mr. Ghulam Nabi Khan, Forest Ranger, 6th grade, Jubbulpore Forest Division, is transferred to the Nimar Forest Division.

27*th November* 1897.—No. 123.—Under the authority conferred on him by the Chief Commissioner in *Central Provinces Gazette* Notification No. 3555, dated the 12th June, 1890, the Officiating Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle, Central Provinces, appoints Messrs. A. Ponnuswamy, F. W. Wightman, D. N. Avasia, and Chhogalal, Forest Rangers, to exercise the powers described in Section 67 of Act VII of 1878 (as modified up to the 31st December, 1894).

27*th November* 1897.—No. 125.—Under the authority conferred by Section 31, clause (1), of the Forest Department Code, Mr. Yeshwant Martand Vadikar, who attended the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, under Rule 12 of the admission rule printed as Appendix II to the Forest Department Code, and who has obtained a certificate by the Higher Standard of that school, is appointed as a Ranger of the 6th grade, with effect from the afternoon of the 19th November, 1897, and posted to the Raipur Forest Division as Working Plans Assistant.

1*st December* 1897.—No. 124.—Under the authority conferred by Section 31, clause (1), of the Forest Department Code, Messrs. W. G. Slaney, D. G. Vishwanath and Moreshwar Rao, who were deputed as stipendiary students to the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, under Rule 8 of the admission rules printed as Appendix II to the Forest Department Code, and who have obtained a certificate by the Higher Standard of that School, are appointed as Rangers of the 6th Grade, with effect from the 1st April, 1897, and posted to the Divisions noted below :—

Mr. W. G. Slaney, Bhandara Division.

Mr. D. G. Vishwanath, Balaghat do.

Mr. Moreshwar Rao, Chanda do.

10*th December* 1897.—No. 5231.—Privilege leave for three months under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. F. Linnell, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, on Famine duty in the Mandla District, with effect from the 10th instant, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

18*th December* 1897.—No. 5332.—With reference to Order No. 5082, dated the 25th ultimo, Mr. H. E. Bartlett, Assistant Conservator

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of Forests and Divisional Forest Officer, Saugor, is placed in charge of the Nimar Forest Division, during the absence of Mr. M. Muttannah, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, or until further orders.

22nd December 1897.—No. 5418.—The following transfers among Divisional Forest Officers are ordered :—

(1) Mr. F. C. Hicks, Deputy Conservator of Forests, from the Jubbulpore to the Damoh Division.

(2) Mr. W. King, Deputy Conservator of Forests, from the Damoh to the Hoshangabad Division.

(3) Mr. W. P. Thomas, Deputy Conservator of Forests, from the Hoshangabad to the Jubbulpore Division.

22nd December 1897.—No. 5419.—With reference to Orders No. 5154, dated the 3rd instant, and No. 5082, dated the 25th November, 1897, Mr. M. Muttannah, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, and Mr. W. P. Thomas, Deputy Conservator of Forests, respectively made over and resumed charge of the Hoshangabad Forest Division on the forenoon of the 3rd insant.

23rd December 1897.—No. 5444.—On return from the three months' privilege leave granted him by Order No. 4053, dated the 8th September last, Mr. G. F. Taylor, Deputy Conservator of Forests, resumed charge of the Saugor Forest Division, on the afternoon of the 10th instant, from Mr. H. E. Bartlett, Assistant Conservator of Forests.

8.—Burma Gazette.

18th November 1897.—No. 14.—Mr. E. C. Florey, Forest Ranger 3rd grade, is granted extension of leave without allowances for two months, with effect from the 28th October 1897.

18th November 1897.—No. 15.—Mr A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. F. J. Branthwaite, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Working Plans division on the afternoon of the 15th November 1897.

24th November 1897.—No. 32.—Mr. A. E Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests, ceased work on special duty in the Katha division on the forenoon of the 16th instant.

24th November 1897.—No. 33.—Mr. R. L. Pocock, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, reported his return from the three months' privilege leave granted him in Revenue Department Notification No. 257 (Forests), dated the 19th July 1897, on the forenoon of the 30th October 1897, and took over charge of the Meza Range of the Katha division on the afternoon of the 11th instant from Maung Po Thin, Ranger, in addition to his other duties.

26th November 1897.—No. 422.—On return from leave Mr. J. W. Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to the Toungoo Forest division.

27th November 1897.—No. 34.—Mr. J. Messer, Deputy Conservator of Forests, reported his return from the leave granted him in Revenue Department Notifications Nos. 524 (Forests), dated the 1st December 1896, and 207 (Forests), dated the 16th June 1897, on the forenoon of the 30th October 1897.

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27th November 1897.—No. 35.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 353 (Forests), dated the 25th October 1897, Mr. J. Messer, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of the Katha Forest division from Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the forenoon of the 6th November 1897.

27th November 1897.—No. 30.—Maung Shwe Le, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, in the Upper Chindwin division, is granted leave on medical certificate for three months, with effect from the 5th September 1897.

30th November 1897.—No. 31.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 404 (Forests), dated the 17th November 1897, Mr. S. F. L. Cappel, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade, assumed charge of his duties at the headquarters of the Mu Forest Division on the forenoon of the 22nd November 1897.

2nd December 1897.—No. 427.—On being relieved by Mr. W. F. Perrée, Assistant Conservator of Forests, of the charge of Rangoon Forest Division, Mr. W. T. T. McHarg, Deputy Conservator of Forests, will continue to hold charge of the Pegu Forest division.

2nd December 1897.—No. 428.—Mr. W. F. Perrée, Assistant Conservator of Forests, reported his arrival in Rangoon on the 1st December 1897, before noon.

4th December 1827.—No. 431.—In this Department Notification No. 322 (Forests), dated the 30th July 1896, in the clause added to Rule 35, for "Mu" substitute "Uyu."

No. 432.—Mr. W. H. Craddock, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, in transferred from the Pyinmana division to the Southern Shan States division.

7th December 1897.—No. 24.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 427 (Forests) dated the 2nd December 1897, Mr. T. T. McHarg, Deputy Conservator of Forests and Mr. W. F. Perrée, Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of, the Rangoon division on the afternoon of the 4th December 1897.

No. 25.—The privilege leave granted to Maung Pe, Forest Ranger, 2nd grade, in this Office Notification No. 18, dated the 25th August 1897, is commuted to nine months' furlough.

10th December 1897.—No. 26.—Mr. R. R. O'Hara, Forest Ranger, 2nd grade, on transfer to the Prome division, made over charge of his duties in the Thayetmyo division on the afternoon of the 1st December 1897, and assumed charge of his duties in the Prome division on the forenoon of the 3rd December 1897.

13th December 1897.—No. 436.—Under the provisions of Articles 291 and 282 of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for three months and 15 days is granted to Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he may avail himself of it.

15th December 1897.—No. 32.—With reference to Revenue department Notification No. 364, (Forests), dated Rangoon, the 25th October 1897, Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Crnservator of Forests, assumed charge of his duties in the Upper Chindwin division on the afternoon of the 1st December 1897.

No. 33.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 403 (Forests), dated Rangoon, the 17th November 1897, Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests, assumed charge of his duties in

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the Upper Chindwin division on the afternoon of the 1st December 1897.

No. 34.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 405 (Forests), dated Rangoon, the 17th November 1897, Mr. F. H. Todd, Assstant Conservator of Forests, assumed charge of his duties at Pakôkku on the afternoon of the 27th November 1897.

20th December 1897.—No. 449.—The following alterations in rank are ordered in the Forest Department :—

(1) With effect from the 13th October 1897, consequent on the death of Mr. C. H. Hobart-Hampden :

Mr. F. J. Branthwaite, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, provisionally substantive, to be confirmed in that grade.

Mr. W. F. L. Tottenham, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade (*seconded*), to be Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, provisionally substantive, and to remain on the seconded list.

Mr. H. N. Thompson, Deputy Conservator of Forests 4th (officiating 3rd) grade, to be Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade, provisionally substantive

Mr. G. R. Long, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, provisionally substantive, to be Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

Mr. C. B. Smales, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, to be Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, provisionally substantive.

(2) With effect from the 6th November 1897, consequent on the return from furlough of Mr. J Messer.

Mr. J. Messer, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

Mr. A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, provisionally substantive, officiating 3rd grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

(3) With effect from the 14th November 1897, consequent on the return of Mr. F. J. Branthwaite from privilege leave.

Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator, 4th (officiating 3rd) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

(4) With effect from the 18th November 1897, consequent on the return of Mr. G. F. R. Blackwell from furlough.

Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator, 4th (officiating 3rd) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

(5) With effect from the 15th December 1897, consequent on the transfer of Mr. W. F. Perrée, Assistant Conservator of Forests, from Bengal.

Mr. W. F. Perrée to be Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, provisionally substantive.

Mr. C. B. Smales, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, provisionally substantive, to revert to Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, but to continue to act as Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

18th December 1897.—No. 16.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 416, dated the 22nd November 1897, Mr. C.

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Ingram, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, reported his return to duty on the 21st November 1897.

18*th December* 1897.—No. 17.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 422, dated the 26th November 1897, Mr. J. W. Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, reported his return to duty on the forenoon of the 1st December 1897.

20*th December* 1897.—No. 18.—Mr. F. Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, reported his return to duty and received charge of the Kado subdivision on the forenoon of the 6th December 1897.

9.—Assam Gazette.

17*th December* 1897.—No. 9173G.—Mr. A. R. Dicks, Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Garo Hills Forest Division, is transferred to the Goalpara Forest Division.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1.—Gazette of India.

20th January, 1898.—No. 55-F—207-12.—The following transfers are ordered in the interests of the public service :—

(i) Mr. J. L. Pigot, Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade, Assam—to Coorg. (The appointment held by Mr. Pigot on the Assam list is also transferred temporarily with him to Coorg, with effect from the 23rd December, 1897.)

(ii) Mr. A. E. Lowrie, Deputy Conservator 3rd grade (provisional substantive), Coorg—to Central Provinces.

(iii) Mr. A. M. F. Caccia, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, Central Provinces—to Burma.

(iv) Mr. A. M. Long, Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, Assam—to Central Provinces.

(v) Mr. F. Linnell, Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, Central Provinces—to Burma.

20th January, 1898.—No. 61-F.—103-19.—With reference to the notification of this Department, No. 1106-F., dated the 28th December, 1897, Mr. J. Nisbet, Officiating Conservator, 3rd grade, on return from the privilege leave granted him in Notification No. 1038-F., dated the 3rd idem, resumed charge of the Eastern Forest Circle, Upper Burma, from Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator, with effect from the afternoon of the 23rd December, 1897.

20th January, 1898.—No. 63 F.—36-2.—Mr. J. W. Oliver, Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, in charge of the School Forest Circle, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, and Director of the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, is granted furlough for fifteen months, under Article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the forenoon of the 10th January, 1898.

From the same date, Mr. J. S. Gamble, Conservator, 1st grade, on return from the furlough, granted him in the notification of this Department, No. 756-F., dated the 7th August, 1896, is re-appointed Conservator in charge of the School Forest Circle and Director of the Imperial Forest School.

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2.—Madras Gazette.

4th January 1898.—No. 3.—

APPOINTMENTS.

No.	Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
1	Mr. C. F. L. Cowley-Brown	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests. 3rd grade.	Acting	*Vice* Mr. P. M. Lushington appointed to act in the 2nd grade during the absence of Mr. Lodge on privilege leave —*vide* Notification No. 234 at page 704 of Part I of the *Fort St. George Gazette* dated 15th June, 1897.
2	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	*Vice* Mr. P. M. Lushington appointed to act in the 2nd grade during the absence of Mr. A. W Lushington on privilege leave—*vide* Notification No. 495 at page 323 of Part I of the *Fort St. George Gazette* dated 2nd November, 1897.

4th January 1898.—No. 4.—

Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
Mr. C. E. C. Fischer.	Asst. Conservator of Forests 2nd grade.	Asst. Conservator of Forests 1st grade.	Acting.	*Vice* Mr. H. A. Latham acting as Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade. To take effect from 5th July, 1897, the date on which Mr. Fischer completed the tests required for promotion to the 1st Grade of Assistant Conservators.

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5th January 1898.—*Leave*—To N. Balaji Singh, Ranger, Fifth Grade, Nellore district, for four months under article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations in continuation of the leave already granted to him.

Privilege leave—To V. C. Doraiswami Pillai, Ranger, Sixth Grade, South Arcot district, for twenty-two days from 5th to 26th November, 1897, both days inclusive, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

20th January 1898.—No. 35.—Mr. A. W. Peet, Conservator of Forests, Northern Circle, is granted furlough for one year, with effect from or after the 3rd April. 1898, under article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, Third Edition.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

5th January 1898.—No. 6612.—Mr. W. A. Talbot, Deputy Conrervator. delivered over and Mr. D. A. Thomson, acting Deputy Conservator, received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Belgaum, on the forenoon of the 4th day of January, 1898.

6th January. 1898.—No. 144.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. T. B. Fry, on relief, to be Divisional Forest Officer, Surat.

6th January, 1898.—No. 5271.—Mr. A. T. Shuttleworth, Conservator of Forests, C. C., and Mr. L. S. Osmaston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Poona, on the 22nd December, 1897, before office hours.

10th January, 1898.—No. 157—183-P.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to direct that Mr. E. M. Hodgson shall, on relief of his duties as Divisional Forest Officer, Surat, be employed on Plague duty at Surat.

15th January, 1898.—No. 6884.—Mr. Nanabhai D. Satarawala, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, was relieved of his duties in the Working Plans Division on the afternoon of the 8th January, 1898.

15th January. 1898.—No. 2911.—Messrs. E. M. Hodgson, I. F. S., and T. B. Fry, I F. S., respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Surat, on the 17th January 1898, in the afternoon.

18th January, 1898.—No. 6945.—Mr. W. R. Woodrow, Deputy Conservator of Forests, handed over and Mr. N. D. Satarawala, Extra Assistant Conservator, received charge of the Dhárwár Division on the afternoon of the 10th January, 1898.

19th January, 1898.—No. 7072—Mr. W. R. Woodrow, Deputy Conservator of Forests, delivered over and Mr. N. D. Satarawala, Extra Assistant Conservator, received charge of the Bijápur Division on the afternoon of 10th January, 1898.

27th January, 1898.—No. 7296,—Messrs. N. D. Satarawala and V. D. P. Rebeiro, Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Bijapur Forest Division on the forenoon of the 16th instant.

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4.—Bengal Gazette.

31*st January* 1898.—No. 471-For.—Consequent on the return to duty on the forenoon of the 4th January, 1898 of Mr. H. H. Haines, F. C. H., Deputy Conservator of Forests, from the eight months' furlough granted him in Notification No. 1747For., dated 8th May, 1897, the following reversion is ordered :—

Mr. F. Trafford, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, to Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, sub. *pro tem.*

5.—N-W.P. and Oudh Gazette

Nil.

6.—Punjab Gazette.

Nil.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

21*st December* 1897.—No. 35—Under the authority conferred on him by the Chief Commissioner in General Department Notification No. 3555, dated the 12th June, 1890, the Officiating Conservator of Forests, Northern Circle, Central Provinces, appoints the following Forest Rangers to exercise the powers described in section 67 of Act VII of 1878 (as modified up to the 31st December, 1894 :—

Mr. S R Parsons,	Forest Ranger,	2nd grade.
„ Faiz Bakhsh (Sub. *pro tem.*)	do.	do.
„ Nago Rao,	do.	3rd grade.
„ Amrit Lal Chatterji,	do.	do.
„ J. F. Anthony,	do.	do.
„ P. Shankarnath,	do	do.
„ J. D. St. Joseph, (Sub. *pro tem*)	do.	do.

„ Bhagwant Narayan Deshpande, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade.

23*rd December* 1897.—No. 36—Mr. R. H. Cole, Forest Ranger, 4th grade, at present attached to the Direction Office, is re-transferred to the Mandla Forest Division, in connection with the preparation of Working-Plans.

7*th January* 1898.—No. 72.—With reference to Order No. 5332 dated the 18th ultimo, Messrs. M. Muttannah, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, and H. E. Bartlett, Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively made over and assumed charge of, the Numar Forest Division on the afternoon of the 15th idem.

14*th January*, 1898.—No 136.—With reference to Order No. 5413 dated the 22nd December, 1897, Mr. J. D. St. Joseph, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, sub *pro tem.* is placed in charge of the current duties of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, Hoshangabad, until relieved by Mr. W. King, Deputy Conservator of Forests.

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14*th January* 1898.—No. 137.—Mr. J. D. St. Joseph assumed charge of the current duties of the office of Divisional Forest Officer Hoshangabad, from Mr. W. P. Thomas, on the afternoon of the 5th instant.

19*th January* 1898.—No. 199.—Mr. F. Linnell, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, on Famine duty in the Mandla District, availed himself, on the afternoon of the 22nd ultimo. of the three months' privilege leave granted him by Order No. 5231, dated the 10th idem.

8.—Burma Gazette.

29*th December* 1897.—No. 459.—Mr. A. Weston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India an extension of furlough for two months.

31*st December* 1897.—No. 35.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 400 (Forests), dated the 15th November, 1897, Mr. G. E. S Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, assumed charge of his duties at the Head-quarters of the Myittha Forest Division on the forenoon of the 9th December, 1897.

4*th January* 1898—No. 1—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 400 (Forests), dated the 15th November 1897 Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests relinquished charge of his duties in the Prome division on the forenoon of the 2nd December, 1897.

10*th January* 1898 —No. 1,—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 432, dated the 4th December 1897 Mr. W. H. Craddock, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, relinquished charge of his duties in the Pyinmana division on the afternoon of the 7th December 1897 and assumed charge of his duties in the Southern Shan States division, Taunggyi, on the forenoon of the 21st December 1897.

14*th January* 1898.—No. 2.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No 436 (Forests), dated the 13th December 1897, Mr. A H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests and Mr. R. R. O'Hara, Forest Ranger, respectively made over and received charge of the North Tharrawaddy sub-division, on the afternoon of the 5th January 1898.

24*th January* 1898.—No. 3.—Consequent on the promotion of Maung Tha Kado, Ranger, 1st grade, to Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, the following promotions among the Rangers on the Lower Burma List are made in consultation with the Conservator of Forests, Tenasserim Circle, with effect from the 19th November 1897 :—

Mr. B. P. Kelly, Ranger 3rd Grade, Henzada-Thôngwa division, to be Ranger 2nd grade.

Maung Tha Shun, Ranger, 4th grade, Thayetmyo division, to be Ranger, 3rd grade.

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9.—Assam Gazette.

7th January 1898.—No. 120G.—On the report of the Central Examination Committee, the Chief Commissioner directs the publication, for general information, of the results of the Half-yearly Examination of Assistant Commissioners, Extra Assistant Commissioners and others, held on the 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th November 1897.

Name.	Subjects taken up by candidates.	Subjects in which passed.	Subjects in which still required to pass.
Forest Officers.			
Mr. J.C. Carroll, Assistant Conservator.	Land Revenue. Forest Law. Procedure and Accounts.	Land Revenue. Procedure and Accounts.	Bengali, Forest Law.
Babu Mamut Ram Medhi, Ranger.	Procedure and Accounts.	Procedure and Accounts.	Bengali.

10—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

21st December 1897.—No. 334.—Mr. L. K. Martin, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, and Divisional Forest Officer, Akola, has been granted privilege leave for 31 days, with effect from the date of relief.

Mr. W. G. J. Peake, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, will be placed in temporary charge of the Akola Division during Mr. Martin's absence on leave or until further orders.

23rd December 1897.—No. 335.—*Erratum.*—In *Residency Orders* Notification No. 306, dated the 15th November, 1897 (published on page 230 of Part I of the *Residency Orders* dated the 15th November, 1897), *for* the words "seven days" *read* "ten days."

11—Mysore Gazette.

27th December 1897.—No, 5740—*Ft. F.* 89-95,—Under Article 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. K. Shamaiengar, Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Chitaldrug District, is granted privilege leave of absence for one month, with effect from the 13th instant, or such other date as he may avail himself of the same.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1.—Gazette of India.

Nil.

2.—Madras Gazette.

1*st March*, 1898.—No. 97.—Mr. C. A. Eber Hardie, District Forest Officer, Bellary, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from or after the 23rd March 1898, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

8*th March*, 1898.—No. 120.—Mr. H. Tireman, District Forest Officer, North Malabar, is granted privilege leave for three months with effect from or after the 25th March 1898 under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

5*th March*, 1898.—*Erratum.*—In Notification relating to the results of the Departmental Test Examination held in January 1898, published on page 127 of *Fort St. George Gazette*, Part I-B, dated 22nd February 1898—

For "S. Venkatraman, Acting Forester on Rs. 15," *read* "S. Venkatraman, Acting Forester on Rs. 20,"

appearing under the heading "Name and Designation" against Tinnevelly district.

March 7th, 1898.—No. 109.—

Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
Mr. H. F. Arbuthnot	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Acting	*Vice* Mr. S. Cox, acting as Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade. To take effect from 5th July 1897, the date on which Mr. Arbuthnot completed the tests required for promotion to the 1st Grade of Assistant Conservators.

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12*th March*, 1898.—*Transfers.*—The following transfers are ordered in the Subordinate Staff of the Northern Circle :—

A. Kristna Row, Acting Ranger, from Vizagapatam to Godavari.

14*th March*, 1898.—No. 128.—

No.	Name and designation of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
1	Mr. C. J. Woutersz, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	South Arcot	District Forest-officer, Acting.	This cancels the appointment of Mr Wood, published in Notification No. 81, dated 15th February 1898, at page 116 of part I of the *Fort St. George Gazette*, dated 15th February 1898.
2	Mr. H. F. A. Wood, Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Godavari	Do.	During the absence of Mr. Thornton on furlough or until further orders.
3	Mr. C. D. McArthy, Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Bellary	District Forest-officer.	To join on the expiry of the Easter Holidays.
4	Mr. C. A. Eber Hardie, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Kistna	Do.	To join on the expiration of privilege leave.
5	M. R. Ry. T. M. Nallaswami Naidu Garu, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Do.	District Forest-officer, Acting.	Until Mr. Eber-Hardie joins the district.
6	Mr. F. C. L. Cowley-Brown, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	North Arcot	District Forest-officer.	.....
7	Mr. W. Carroll, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Do.	District Forest-officer, Acting.	During the employment of Mr. Cowley-Brown as Acting District Forest-officer, Salem (already notified).

14*th March*, 1898.—No. 129.—Appointments.

No.	Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
1	Mr. P. M. Lushington.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Acting	During the absence of Mr. T. P. Peake on privilege leave.
2	Mr. F. C. L. Cowley-Brown.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Do.	

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18*th March*, 1898.—*Confirmations.*—The following confirmations are ordered :—

C. S. Venkatramana Iyer, Ranger, VI Grade, and acting sub. *pro tem.* Ranger, V, to be Ranger, V Grade.

A. P. Singaravelu Moodelliar, Deputy Ranger, I, and acting sub. *pro tem.* Ranger, VI Grade, to be Ranger, VI Grade.

18*th March*, 1898.—*Leave.*—Ranger A. Srinivasa Chamberlain is granted leave on medical certificate, under article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, for two months from 12th March 1898.

18*th March*, 1898.—*Privilege leave.*—To J. A. Daly, Ranger, Fourth Grade, Salem district, for one month, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from 9th March 1898.

Madras, 16th March 1898.

18*th March*, 1898.—*Transfer.*—A. P. Ramachendra Mudaliar, Ranger, Fifth Grade, from Salem district to Chingleput district.

22*nd March* 1898.—*Transfer.*—N. Arumuga Mudaliar, Ranger, Third Grade, Chingleput district, is temporarily transferred to the Salem district.

25*th March*, 1898.—No. 148.—The privilege leave for three months granted to Mr. T. N. Hearsey, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Kurnool, in Notification No. 76, published at page 115 of Part I of the *Fort St George Gazette*, dated 15th Februrary 1898, is hereby cancelled.

29*th March*, 1898.—*Leave.*—To A. P. Ramachendra Mudaliar, Ranger, Fifth Grade, Salem district (under transfer to the Chingleput district) for six weeks under article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from 19th March 1898.

30*th March*, 1898.—*Transfer.*—Alure Kristna Row, Acting Ranger Vizagaptam district, is transferred to Kurnool district instead of to Godavari district as ordered in this office service order No. 129 of 1897-98, dated 14th March 1898.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

1*st March* 1898.—No. 8146.—Mr. N. D. Satarawalla, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, handed over charge of the Dhárwár Division to Mr. W. R. Woodrow, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on the forenoon of the 21st February 1898, and resumed charge of his duties in the Working Plans Division on the forenoon of the 22nd *idem.*

12*th March* 1898.—No. 1783.—Mr. R. S. Fagan, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Second Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, Central Circle, is allowed furlough for eighteen months with effect from 28th March 1898, or such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

15*th March* 1898.—No. 8542.—Mr. W. A. Talbot, Deputy Conservator of Forests and Divisional Forest Officer, Belgaum, availed himself of the three months' privilege leave sanctioned in Government Resolution No. 1153 of the 14th February 1898, on the afternoon of the 8th March 1898, handing over charge of the Belgaum Division to Mr. D. A. Thomson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.

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15*th March* 1898.—No. 1885.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments :—

Mr. L. S. Osmaston to act as Working Plans Officer, Central Circle, Poona, during the absence on leave of Mr, R. S. F. Fagan, or pending further orders.

Mr. O. H. L. Napier to act as Divisional Forest Officer, Poona, *vice* Mr. Osmaston, pending further orders.

Mr. Ganesh Sakhárám Hinge to be under the orders of the Conservator of Forests, Sind Circle.

15*th March* 1898.—No. 1886.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments *vice* Mr. A. Stewart, retired :—

Mr. T. R. D. Bell to be Third Grade Deputy Conservator of Forests.

Mr. B. J. Haselden to be Fourth Grade Deputy Conservator of Forests *vice* Mr. Bell, promoted.

Mr. James Dodgson to be First Grade Assistant Conservator of Forests *vice* Mr. Haselden, promoted.

22*nd March* 1898.—No. 2099.—Mr. W. R. Woodrow, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Dhárwár, is allowed privilege leave of absence for two months.

25*th March* 1898.—No. 2155.—Mr. B. J. Haselden, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, S. D., Kánára, is allowed furlough for two years with effect from 1st April 1898.

No. 2158.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. E. G. Oliver to perform the duties of Divisional Forest Officer, Dhárwár, in addition to his own, during the absence of Mr. W. R. Woodrow on privilege leave.

29*th March* 1898.—No. 2247.—Mr. Haripad Mitra, L. C. E., Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, has been appointed to do duty as Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, Sind Circle, with effect from 7th November 1897.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

29*th March* 1898.—No. 1369.—Mr R. G. A. Hannah, Forest Ranger, 1st grade, is appointed to officiate as Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, with effect from 1st April 1898, *vice* Mr. R. Quinnell, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, on furlough.

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29th March 1898.—No. 1370.—Babu Gurudas Chatterjee, Forest Ranger, 1st grade, is appointed to be an Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, with effect from 1st April 1898.

5.—N-W.P. and Oudh Gazette.

3rd March 1898.—No. 556-II-835-C.—Babu Karuna Nidhan Mukerji, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Saharanpur Division, School Circle, privilege leave for one month with effect from the 5th March 1898.

3rd March 1898.—No. 557-II-835-C.—Pandit Sadanand Gairola, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Jaunsar Division, School Circle to the charge of the Saharanpur Division of the same circle, *vice* Babu Nidhan Mukerji, granted leave.

5th March 1898.—No. 620-II-86-A.—The following temporary promotions and reversions in the Forest Service are notified for general Karuna information :—

Entry No.	With effect from	Consequen on	Name.	From	To
1	29th Oct. 1897.	Mr. B. A. Rebsch's return from furlough.	Mr. B. B. Osmaston, Mr. P. H. Clutterbuck.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.
			Mr. J. C. Tulloch.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.
2	8th Nov. 1897.	Mr. A. G. Hobart-Hampden's departure on furlough.	Mr. B. A. Rebsch.	Deputy Conservator, 3rd. Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.
			Mr. B. B. Osmaston, Mr. P. H. Clutterbuck.	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.
			Mr. J. C. Tulloch.	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.
			Mr. F. F. H. Channer.	Assistant Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.

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6.—Punjab Gazette.

1st March 1898.—No. 118.—With reference to Punjab Government Notification No. 615, dated 23rd November 1897, Bhai Sadhu Singh, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, returned from privilege leave and resumed duty in the Chamba Forest Division on the afternoon of the 18th January 1898.

19th March 1898.—No. 140 A. L. No. 7.—*Leave.*—Mr. W. Mayes, Assistant Conservator of Forests, and Mr. J. H. Lace, Deputy Conservator of Forests, respectively, made over and received charge of the Chamba Forest Division on the forenoon of the 7th March 1898, consequent on the latter's return from privilege leave, *vide* Punjab Government Notification No. 60 A. L No. 3, dated 4th February 1898.

24th March 1898.—No. 154 A. L. No.—The following changes have taken place in the list of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces with effect from the dates specified against each :—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from.	Remarks.
Mr. A. W. Blunt	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	14th December 1897.	Consequent on the return of Mr. G. S. Hart from his appointment as Officiating Inspector-General of Forests.
Mr. B. O. Coventry	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Ditto.	
Mr. B. O. Coventry	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	22nd January 1898.	Consequent on Mr. Linnell's' going on 3 months' privilege leave.
Mr. A. St. V. Beechey	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	26th January 1898.	Consequent on Mr. C. Somers Smith going on one year's furlough.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

1st March 1898.—No. 39.—Mr. Faiz Bakhsh, Ranger in the Damoh Forest Division, is temporarily transferred to the Direction Office, with effect from the 1st January 1898, in connection with the

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re-writing of the Working-plan Report for the forests of the Damoh Division.

9th March 1898.—No. 40.—Privilege leave for one month, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Bapu Rao, Ranger, 4th grade, Permanent Establishment, Mandla Division, with effect from such date as he may be permitted to avail himself of it.

12th March 1898.—No. 856.—Mr. O. C. Gilmore, Forest Ranger, 5th grade, attached to the Southern Circle, Central Provinces, who was granted extraordinary leave without pay for 14 months and 13 days, is permitted to resign his appointment with effect from the 28th August 1897, the date of expiry of his leave.

24th March 1898.—No 1014 —Mr. L. Gisborne-Smith, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Sambalpur, is posted to the charge of the Jubbulpore Forest Division, during the absence, as Officiating Conservator in charge of the Berar Forest Circle, of Mr. W. P. Thomas, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Jubbulpore, or until further orders.

8.—Burma Gazette.

4th March 1898.—No. 42.—Mr. A. Weston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India an extension of furlough for two months.

9th March 1898.—No. 2.—Mr. C. Ingram, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, availed himself on the afternoon of the 5th March 1898 of the furlough granted to him in Revenue Department Notification No. 26 (Forests), dated the 12th February 1898.

16th March 1898.—No. 55.—The following Forest Rangers are promoted to the 4th grade of Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests, with effect from the 1st March 1898, in the order mentioned below :—

Mr. J. L. Hefferman, | Mr. R. R O'Hara.
Mr. G. T. Wrafter.

No. 56 —Mr. C. V. Ryan, Forest Ranger, is promoted to the 4th grade of Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests, on probation, with effect from the 1st March 1898,

17th March 1898.—No. 57.—Mr. D. H. Allan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, has been permitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

18th March 1898.—No. 61.—Under the provisions of section 69 of the Forest Department Code, examination leave for two months is granted to Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 1st April 1898, or such date as he may avail himself of it.

22nd March 1898.—No. 2.—Mr. A. M. Reuther, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. C. W. A. Bruce, Deputy Conservato of Forests, received, charge of the Pyinmana Forests Division on the afternoon of the 17th instant.

25th March 1898.—No. 3.—Consequent on the death of Maung Pe, Ranger, 2nd grade, and the resignation of Maung Po Kin, Ranger, 3rd grade, Pegu Circle, the following promotions among the Rangers are

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made in the Tenasserim Circle, in consultation with the Conservator of Forests, Pegu Circle :—

Mr. W. J. Dalton, Ranger, 3rd grade, to be Ranger, 2nd grade, *vice* Paung Pe, with effect from the 31st January 1898.

Maung Kyaing, Ranger, 4th grade, to be Ranger, 3rd grade, *vice* Mr Dalton. with effect from the 31st January 1898.

Mr. G Cooper, Ranger, 4th grade, to be Ranger, 3rd grade, *vice* Maung Po Kin, with effect from the 4th January 1898.

30*th March* 1898.—No. 70 —Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator, is placed in charge of the Upper Chindwin division as a temporary measure, pending the arrival of Mr. C. W. Doveton.

30*th March* 1898.—No. 71.—Mr. F. Linnell, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, is posted on arrival to the charge of the Ruby Mines division, *vice* Mr. M. Hill, Deputy Conservator of Forests, proceeding on leave.

30*th March* 1898.—No. 72.—Under the provisions of Article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, furlough for ten months is granted to Mr M. Hill, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he may avail himself of it.

9.—Assam Gazette.

24*th March* 1898. —No. 2342G.—Privilege leave of absence for three months, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. H. S. Ker-Edie, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Cachar Forest Division, with effect from the 25th March 1898, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

24*th March* 1898.—No. 2343G.—Babu Tara Kisor Gupta, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Nowgong Forest Division, is transferred to Silchar, and placed in charge of the Cachar Forest Division, during the absence on leave of Mr. H. S. Ker-Edie, or until further orders.

24*th March* 1898.—No. 2346G.—Mr. D. P. Copeland, Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Darrang Forest, Division, is placed in charge of the Nowgong Forest Divisior, in addition to his own duties, until further orders.

10—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

26*th March* 1898.—No. 64.—Mr. W. G. J. Peake, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests Hyderabad Assigned Districts, is granted privilege leave for three months with effect from the 1st April 1898, or from such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it,

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11—Mysore Gazette.

3rd March 1898.—No. 8099.—Ft. F. 1-96.—Under Article 171 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. P. E. Benson, Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Shimoga district, was granted casual leave of absence for a day, namely, the 5th February 1898.

5th March 1898.—No. 8272.—Ft. F. 60-95.—Under Article 218 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. G. E. Ricketts, Assistant Conservator of Forests, doing duty in the Mysore district, is granted leave, on medical certificate, for one year, with effect from the 10th March 1898.

14th March 1898.—No. 8531.—Ft. F. 19-95.—The ten days' casual leave of absence granted to Mr. B, Ramaswami Iyer, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Kolar district, in Notification No. 7399—Ft. F-19-95, dated 5th February 1898, is hereby extended by five days.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1.—Gazette of India.

Nil.

2.—Madras Gazette.

28*th January* 1898.—*Privilege leave*—To T. Arumuga Mudaliar Ranger, Fifth Grade, North Arcot District, for three months from 1st March, 1898 under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

29*th January* 1898.—The temporary reduction of Ranger R. S. Bower, Salem district ordered in service order No. 85, dated 24th May 1897, will be made permanent from this date.

31*st January* 1898.—*Leave.*—S. Solomon, Ranger on Rs. 50, South Canara district, is granted furlough for two years, under article 371 of the Civil Service Regulations, from date of relief.

3*rd February* 1898.—*Transfer.*—B. D'Sa, Ranger on Rs. 50, is transferred from South Coimbatore to Madura.

8*th February* 1898.—*No.* 64.—Mr. E. P. Popert, Conservator of Forests, Central Circle, is granted furlough for two years, with effect from or after the 16th March 1898, under article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, 3rd Edition.

9*th February* 1898.—*Privilege leave*—To A. N. Hanumantha Row Forest Ranger, Fifth Grade, South Arcot district, for two and a hal months under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations from 29th November 1897.

10*th February* 1898.—*No.* 74.—Mr. W. W. Batchelor, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Cuddapah, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from or after the 10th March 1898, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

No. 75.—Mr. T. P. Peake, District Forest Officer, South Arcot, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from or after the 10th March 1898, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

No 76—Mr. T. N. Hearsey, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Kurnool, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from or after the 1st March 1898, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

No. 77.—Mr. S. C. Moss, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Salem, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from or after the 20th February 1898, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

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12*th February* 1898.—*No.* 79

No.	Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted	Nature of promotion	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
1	Mr. A. W. Peet.	Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Acting	During the absence of Mr E. P. Popert on furlough.
2	Mr. J.W. Cherry	Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Do.	
3	Mr. E. D. M. Hooper	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Do.	
4	Mr. J.W. Cherry	Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade, & Acting in the 2nd Grade.	Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Do.	During the absence of Mr. A. W. Peet on furlough.
5	Mr. H. A. Gass	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Do.	
6	Mr. C. E. Brasier	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade and Acting in the 1st Grade.	Do.	Do.	During the absence of Messrs. Hooper and Gass on leave.
7	Mr. A. W. Lushington	Deputy Conservator of Forests 3rd Grade, and Acting in the 2nd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests 1st Grade.	Do.	*Vice* Mr. Brasier acting as Conservator.
8	Mr. E. R. Murray	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 7
9	Mr H. B. Bryant	Deputy Conservator of Forests 4th Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 8.
10	Mr. W. W. Batchelor.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade, and Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 9.

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POSTINGS.

No. 80—

No.	Name of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
1	Mr. J. W. Cherry.	Central Circle.	Conservator of Forests.	During the absence of Mr. E. P. Popert, on leave, or until further orders.
2	Mr. E. D. M Hooper	Northern Circle.	Do.	During the absence of Mr. A. W. Peet on leave, or until further orders.
3	Mr. E. E. Brasier.	Southern Circle.	Do.	During the employment of Mr. Cherry on other duty, or until further orders.
4	Mr. F. C. L. Cowley Brown.	Salem ...	Acting District Forest Officer.	*Vice* No. 3.
5	Mr. F. A. Lodge.	South Coimbatore.	District Forest Officer.	*Vice* No. 4.
6	Mr. A. W. Lushington.	Kurnool.	Do.	*Vice* No. 5.

15*th February* 1898. *No.* 81 –

No.	Name of Officer.	District.	Nature of charge	Remarks.
1	Mr. H. F. A. Wood, Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests 4th Grade.	South Arcot.	Acting District Forest Officer.	During the absence of Mr. Peake on privilege leave, or until further orders. To join on relief in Tinnevelly.

7*th February* 1898 —*Erratum* —In the notification granting privilege leave to Forest Ranger A N. Hanumantha Row, published in page 256 of Part II of the *Fort St. George Gazette* ated 15th February 1898, *for* "from 29th November 1897" *read* "from 29th December 1897."

22*nd February* 1898.—*Leave* — The Board of Revenue has granted under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for twenty four days, from or after 14th March 1898, to Mr. H. F. A. Wood Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.

3.—BOMBAY GAZETTE.

14*th February* 1898.—No 1153.—Mr. W. A. Talbot, Deputy Conservator of Forests; Second Grade, is allowed privilege leave of absence for three months.

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21*st February* 1898.—No. 1292.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to cancel Government Notification No. 8936, dated 8th December 1897, Revenue Department, and to appoint Mr. J. H. Clabby to be under the Deputy Conservator of Forests in charge S. C.

23*rd February* 1898.—No. 7995—Mr. W. A. Talbot, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on being relieved of Plague duty at Belgaum. received charge of the Belgaum Division from Mr. D. A. Thomson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the forenoon of the 16th February 1898.

24*th February* 1898.—No. 8025—Mr. J. H. Clabby, extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Second Grade, received charge of the Sub-Divisional Office, S. D., Kanara, from Mr. Harihar Anant Nadkarni on the afternoon of the 18th February 1898.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

Nil.

5.—N-W.P. and Oudh Gazette.

22*rd February* 1898.—No. $\frac{436}{\text{II.}-65\text{q B.}}$—With effect from the 1st March 1897, the date on which Mr B. B. Osmaston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, *provisional Substantive*, took charge of the office of Instructor at the Forest School. Dehra Dun.

Mr. P. A. Clutterbuck, officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, to be Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, *provisional substantive.*

Mr. W. H. Lovegrove, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade.

22*nd February* 1898—No. $\frac{439}{\text{II.}-86\text{ A.}}$—In column 4. of Notification No. $\frac{1827}{\text{II.}-86\text{ A.}}$—dated 22nd May 1897, for Mr. W. H. Lovegrove "*read*" Mr. P. H. Clutterbuck.

No. $\frac{440}{\text{II.}-86\text{ A.}}$—Notification No. $\frac{1242}{\text{II.}-665\text{ B.}}$—dated 7th May 1897, regarding Mr. Lovegrove. is hereby cancelled.

22*nd February* 1898.—No. $\frac{448}{\text{II.}-665\text{ B.}}$—with effect from the 27th July 1897, *vice* Mr. A. Smythies, confirmed as Conservator of Forests 3rd grade, in Burma.—

Mr. N. Hearle. Deputy Conservator of Forests, from the 3rd grade, to the 2nd grade.

Mr. A. G. Hobart Hampden, Deputy Conservator of Forests. 3rd grade, *provisional substantive*, to be confirmed in that grade.

Mr. B. A. Rebsch, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, to be Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, *provisional substantive*?

Mr. B. B. Osmaston, Deputy Conservator of Forests. 4th grade, *provisional substantive* (on deputation as Instructor at the Forest, School, Dehra Dun) to be confirmed in that grade.

Mr W. H. Lovegrove, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, to be Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, *provisional substantive.*

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Mr. F. A. Leete, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, *provisional Substantive*, to be confirmed in that grade.

Mr. J. C. Tulloch, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade *provisional Substantive*.

22*nd February* 1898.—No. $\frac{444}{11-665B.}$—With effect from the 4th September 1897, *vice* Colonel J. E. Campbell, Deputy conservator of Forests, 1st grade, retired—

Mr. W. Shakespear, Deputy Conservator of Forests, from the 2nd, grade to the 1st grade;

Mr. F. B. Bryant, Deputy Conservator of Forests (on deputation as Officiating Assistant Inspector-General of Forests), from the 3rd to the 2nd grade.

Mr. A. G. Hobart Hampden, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, to be Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, *provisional substantive.*

Mr. B. A. Rebsch, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, *provisional Substantive*, to be confirmed in that grade.

Mr. L. Mercer, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, to be Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, *provisional substantive.*

Mr. P. H. Clutterbuck, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, *provisional Substantive*. to be confirmed in that grade;

Mr. A. P. Grenfell, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade (on furlough to be Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, *provisional substantive.*

Mr. H. G. Billson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade, to be Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, *provisional substantive.*

6.—Punjab Gazette.

4th February, 1898.—No. $\frac{59}{\text{A. L. No. 2.}}$ Mr. G S. Hart, Deputy Conservator of Forests, took over charge of the Simla Forest Division on the forenoon of the 23rd December 1897, relieving Mr. Mr. W. Mayes, Assistant Conservator of Forests, transferred to the Chamba Forest Division.

4th February, No. $\frac{60}{\text{A. L. No. 3.}}$ Mr. J. H. Lace, Deputy Conservator of Forests, and Mr. W. Mayes, Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of the Chamba Forest Division on the afternoon of the 5th January 1898, consequent on the former's departure on two months' privilege leave.

Mr. W. Mayes was attached to the Chamba Division from the forenoon of the 24th December 1897 to the forenoon of the 5th January 1898.

4th February 1898.—No. $\frac{61}{\text{A. L. No. 4}}$ Mr. E. M. Coventry, Deputy Conservator of Forests, and Lála Daulat Rám, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of the Montgomery Forest Division on the afternoon of the 12th January 1898, consequent on the former's transfer to the Simla Forest Division.

Lála Daulat Rám remained attached to the Lahore Forest Division up to the afternoon of the 11th idem.

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4th February, 1898.—No. $\frac{65}{\text{A. L. No. 5}}$ Messrs G. S. Hart and M. Coventry. Deputy Conservators of Forests. respectively made over and received charge of the Simla Forest Division on the afternoon of the 17th January 1898, consequent on the former's transfer to the Kángra Division.

8th February, 1898.—No. $\frac{73}{\text{A. L. No. 3.}}$ —Messrs C. Somers Smith and G. S. Hart, Deputy Conservators of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of the Kángra Forest Division on the afternoon of the 25th January 1898, consequent on the former's departure on one year's furlough sanctioned in Punjab Government Notification No. $\frac{62}{\text{A. L. No. 35}}$ dated 30th November 1897.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

3rd December 1897.—No. 5153.— Mr. J. A. McKee returned from the privilege leave granted him by Revenue and Agriculture Department Notification No. 871-221-4-F., dated the 8th Sepetember last, and assumed charge of the office of Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle, from Mr. W. P. Thomas, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on the forenoon of the 30th ultimo.

3rd December 1897.—No. 5154.—On being relieved by Mr. McKee of the office of Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle, Mr. W. P. Thomas. Deputy Conservator of Forests, is re-posted to the Hoshangabad Forest Division.

4th Februury 1898.—No. 37.—With the previous approval of the Government of India, Mr. J. D. St. Joseph, Ranger. 3rd grade, sub. *pro. tem.* is, under Article 366 of the Civil Service Regulations, granted three years extraordinary leave without pay from the 26th January 1898 to take up service in the Barwani State, Bhopawar Agency, Central India.

4th February 1898.—No. 476.—Mr. A. M. F. Caccia, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been granted. by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India. three months' leave on medical certificate, in extension of the furlough on medical certificate granted him by Orders Nos. 2250 and 4782. dated respectively the 29th April and 4th November 1897.

8th February 1898.—No. 527.—Mr. A. E. Lowrie. Deputy Conservator of Forests. 3rd grade. transferred to these Provinces by Government of India Notification No. 55 F.—207-12, dated the 20th ultimo, is posted to the charge of the Chanda Forest Division.

8th February 1898.—No. 528.—On being relieved by Mr. A. E. Lowrie, Mr. F. O. Lemarchand, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, in charge of the Chanda Forest Division, is transferred to the Nagpur-Wardha Forest Division.

10th February 1898.—No. 548.—Mr. F. S. Barker, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is granted eight months' leave in extension of the extraordinary leave granted him by the orders noted below :—

No. 1055. dated the 19th February 1897.
,, 3656. dated the 6th August 1897.
,, 4828 dated the 8th November 1897.

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10th February 1898.—No. 555.—On return from the privilege leave granted him by Order No. 5082, dated the 25th November last, Mr M. Muttannah, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, is ordred to resume charge of the Nimar Forest Division from Mr. H. E. Bartlett Assistant Conservator of Forests.

Mr. Bartlett will remain attached to the Nimar Forest Division.

17th February 1898.—No. 620.—On being relieved of his special famine duties at Damoh, Mr. R. C. Thompson, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, is transferred to the Mandla Forest Division and is placed on special duty to revise the scheme of forest excision n that district.

He was relieved of his special famine duties on the 31st December 1897.

8.—Burma Gazette.

2nd February 1898.—No. I.—Consequent on the promotion of Maung Tha Kado, Ranger, 1st grade, to Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, and to the resignation of Mr. E. C. Florey, Ranger, 3rd grade the following promotions among the Rangers on the Lower Burma List Tenasserim Circle, are made, in consultation with the Conservator of Forests, Pegu Circle :—

(1.) With effect from 19th November 1897 :—
Mr. J. Benjamin, Ranger, 2nd grade, Kado division, to be Ranger, 1st grade.

(2.) With effect from the 25th December 1897 :—
Maung San E, Ranger 4th grade, West Salween division, to be Ranger, 3rd grade.

9th February 1898.—No. I.—Mr. G. T. Wrafter, Ranger, 2nd grade, on transfer to the Magwe division, relinquished charge of his duties in the Yaw division on the afternoon of the 15th January 1898 and assumed charge of his duties in the Magwe Division in the forenoon of the 17th January 1898.

12th February 1898.—No. 26.—(Forests.)—Under the provisions Article 371 (*a*) of the Civil Service Regulations furlough for one year is granted to Mr C. Ingram, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 1st March 1898 or any subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

9.—Assam Gazette.

Nil.

10—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

8th February 1898.—No. 26.—Mr. Misri Prasadh, Officiating Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Bairagarh Sub-division, Ellichpur district, is granted furlough from the date of relief up to the 9th January 1899.

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Mr. V. Krishnasawmi Mudeliar, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, is appointed to officiate as an Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests of the 4th grade during Mr. Misri Prasadh's absence on leave, until further orders.

11—Mysore Gazette.

2nd February 1898.—No. 7238.—Ft. F. 89-95.—The one month's privilege leave of absence granted to Mr. K. Shamaiengar. Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Chitaldrug district, in Government Notification No. 5740 —Ft. F. 89-95, dated 27th December 1897, is hereby cancelled.

5th February 1898.—No. 7399.—Ft. F. 19-95.—Under Article 172 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. B. Ramaswami Iyer, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Kolar district, is granted casual leave of absence for ten days, with effect from the 2nd February 1898, or such other date as he may avail himself of the same.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1.—Gazette of India.

19*th April* 1898.—No. 278—58-5-*F.*—Furlough for ten months under Article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. A. E. Wild, Conservator, 2nd grade, in charge of the Bengal Forest Circle, with effect from the afternoon of the 15th March 1898.

From the same date and until further orders—

(*a*) Mr. A. Smythies, Conservator, 3rd grade, Burma, is appointed to officiate in the 2nd grade.

(*b*) Mr. E. G. Chester, Deputy Conservator, 1st grade, Bengal, is appointed to officiate as Conservator, 3rd grade, and has been placed in charge of the Bengal Forest Circle.

No. 281—56-7-*F.*—Furlough for eight months, under article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. C. Bagshawe, Conservator, 1st grade, in charge of the Berar Forest Circle, with effect from the afternoon of the 28th March 1898.

From the same date and until further orders—

(*a*) Mr. S. Eardley-Wilmot, Conservator, 2nd grade, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, is appointed to officiate in the 1st grade.

(*b*) Mr. W. P. Thomas, Deputy Conservator, 1st grade, Central Provinces, is appointed to officiate as Conservator, 3rd grade, and has been placed in charge of the Berar Forest Circle.

285—258-13-*F.*—Furlough for eight months, under Article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. A. Smythies, Conservator, 3rd (officiating 2nd) grade, in charge of the Western Forest Circle in Upper Burma, with effect from the afternoon of the 2nd April 1898.

From the same date and until further orders—

(*a*) Mr H. C. Hill, Conservator, 1st grade, has been placed in charge of the Western Forest Circle in Upper Burma.

(*b*) Mr. S. Eardley-Wilmot, Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, reverted to his substantive grade.

15*th April* 1898.—No. 267—258-13-*F.*—Mr. G. F. Prevost, Officiating Conservator, 3rd grade, in charge of the Pegu Forest Circle, Lower Burma, is granted furlough for twenty-one months, under article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the afternoon of the 25th February 1898.

From the 26th February to the 25th March 1898 (both dates inclusive), Mr. H. B. Ward, Deputy Conservator, 1st grade (*provincial substantive*), Burma, officiated as Conservator, 3rd grade, and was placed in charge of the Pegu Forest Circle, in addition to his own duties,

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Mr. A. M. Reuther, Deputy Conservator, 1st grade, Burma, is appointed to officiate as Conservator, 3rd grade, and has been placed in charge of the Pegu Forest Circle, with effect from the afternoon of the 26th March 1898, and until further orders.

29th April 1898.—No. 312-*F.*—*Erratum.*—In the Notification of this Department, No. 285-F., dated the 19th April 1898, *for* "with effect from the afternoon of the 2nd April 1898" *read* "with effect from the forenoon of the 2nd April 1898."

2.—MADRAS GAZETTE.

FOREST DEPARTMENTAL TEST.

30th March 1898.—The following Subordinates in the Northern Circle passed the Departmental Examination held in January 1898, in the subjects noted against each :—

K. V. Subbarow, Forester, Ganjam District.	Forest Act and Rules.
S. V. Adinarayana Iyer, Deputy Ranger, Godavari.	Do.
D. Ramamurthy, Forester, Kistna ...	Do.
T. M. Teruvengidachari, Forester, Kistna.	Do.
I. S. Sivarama Iyer, Deputy Ranger, Bellary.	Forest Act and Rules and Forest Code and Accounts.
S. Ramasami Iyer, Temporary Deputy Ranger, Bellary.	Forest Act and Rules.
R. V. Ramanujam Chetti, Forester, Anantapur.	Forest Act and Rules and Forest Code and Accounts.

1*st April* 1898.—*Suspension.*—K. Aswatham Naidu, Forest Ranger, Kurnool district, is suspended for one month from date of relief.

6*th April* 1898.—*Posting cancelled.*—Service order No. 129, dated 14th March 1898, transferring A. Kristnarao, is reinforced ; therefore service order No. 146, dated 30th March 1898, posting him to Kurnool, is cancelled.

6*th April* 1898.—*Leave.*—V. Raman Menon, Forest Ranger, on Rs. 50, South Malabar division, is granted privilege leave for three months, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, from or after 4th April 1898.

23*rd April* 1898.—*No.* 171.—Mr. A. W. Lushington, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Kurnool, is granted privilege leave for one month and thirteen days, from or after the 5th May 1898, under article 291 of of the Civil Service Regulations.

26*th April* 1898.—*Privilege leave.*—To J. A. Daly, Ranger, 4th grade, Salem district, for one month, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, in continuation of the one month's leave already granted to him.

28*th April* 1898.—*Dehra Dún Forest School.*—The following is the result of the Examination at the end of the course of 1896-98 as regards Government students deputed to the Dehra Dún Forest School from the Southern Circle :—

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Rank out of 19.

8. Mr. L. S. Janes obtained the higher standard certificate with Mr. Hill's prize for Entomological Collections.

18. Mr. J. P. Nazareth obtained the higher standard certificate.

28*th April* 1898,—*Leave.*—M. Srinivas Alyengar, Ranger, on Rs. 50 Madura district, is granted privilege leave, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, for three months, from 25th April 1898.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

1*st April*, 1898.—No. 2302.—Mr. H. W. Keys, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, West Khándesh, is granted furlough for one year.

1*st April*, 1898.—No. 40.—Mr. W. A. Wallinger, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, delivered over and Mr. Savlyaram Balwant Ranade, L. C. E., extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Panch Mahâls, on 25th March 1898, in the afternoon.

2*nd April*, 1898.—No. 2331.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. R. H. Madan, L. C. E. (Bom.), to hold charge of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, West Khándesh, in addition to his own duties, during the absence of Mr. H. W. Keys, or pending further orders.

6*th April*, 1898 —No. 2425.—Mr. H. Murray, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, has been allowed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

6*th April*, 1898 —No. 2447.—Mr. W. A. Wallinger, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Panch Mahâls, has been allowed privilege leave of absence for three months.

6*th April*, 1898.—No. 2448.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. Chunilal Gulabchand Dalia, L. C. E., to act as Divisional Forest Officer, Panch Mahals, during the absence on leave of Mr. W. A. Wallinger, or pending further orders.

12*th April*, 1898.—No. 207.—Messrs. W. R. Woodrow and E. G. Oliver, Deputy Conservators of Forests, respectively, delivered over and received charge of the Dhárwár Forest Division on the afternoon of the 2nd instant.

14*th April*, 1898.—No. 2540.—Mr. R. C. Wroughton, Conservator of Forests, N. C., is allowed furlough for one year with effect from 8th May, 1898.

14*th April*, 1898.—No. 106.—Messrs. C. G. Dalia, L. C. E., Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and E. M. Hodgson, I F. S., delivered over and received charge, respectively, of the Sub-Divisional Forest Office, Surat, on the 2nd April, 1898, in the afternoon.

14*th April*, 1898.—No. 107.—Messrs. S. B. Ranade, L. C. E., Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, and C. G. Dalia,

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L. C. E., extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, delivered over and received charge, respectively, of the Divisional Forest Office, Panch Mahâls, on the 4th April 1898, in the forenoon.

15*th April*, 1898.—No. 2571.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments *vice* Mr. R. C. Wroughton proceeding on leave, pending further orders :—

Mr. F. R. Desâi to act as Conservator of Forests, Second Grade.

Mr. W. G. Betham to act as Conservator of Forests, Third Grade.

Mr. T. B. Fry to hold administrative charge of the Northern Circle.

Mr. E. M. Hodgson to be Divisional Forest Officer, Surat.

16*th April*, 1898.—No. 220.—Messrs. R. S. F. Fagan, and L. S. Osmaston, Deputy Conservators of Forests, respectively, delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Working Plans, Central Circle, on the 5th April 1898, in the afternoon.

18*th April*, 1898.—No. 270.—Messrs. G. S. Hinge, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, and G. P. Millett, Deputy Conservator of Forests, respectively, delivered over and received charge of the Nasik Sub-Divisional Forest Office, on the forenoon of the 4th April 1898.

18*th April*, 1898.—No. 165.—Messrs. G. M. Ryan, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, and W. C. Shepherd, I. C. S., Assistant Collector, Thâna, respectively, delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, South Thana, on the 8th April 1898, in the afternoon.

18*th April*, 1898.—No. 166.—Messrs. W. C. Shepherd, I. C. S., Assistant Collector, Thâna, and R. C. Wroughton, I. F. S., respectively, delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, South Thâna, on the 12th April 1898, in the forenoon.

19*th April*, 1898.—No. 318.—Messrs. L. S. Osmaston and O.H.L. Napier, Deputy Conservators of Forests, respectively, delivered over and received charge of the Divisional, Forest Office, Poona, on the 13th April 1898, before office hours.

20*th April*, 1898.—No. 313.—Mr. B. J. Haselden, Deputy Conservator, and Mr. J. H. Clabby, extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively, delivered over and received charge of the Southern Forest Division of Kânara, on the afternoon of the 2nd instant.

25*th April*, 1898.—No 2798.—Mr. G. M. Ryan, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, South Thâna, has been allowed furlough for six months.

25*th April*, 1898.—No. 2751.—Mr. W. F. D. Fisher, Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, N. C., has been granted privilege leave for three months with effect from 10th May 1898.

25*th April*, 1898—No. 2758.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. J. Dodgson to hold charge of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, South Thâna, in addition to his own duties, during the absence, on leave, of Mr. G. M. Ryan, or pending further orders.

25*th April*, 1898.—No. 2800.—Mr. V. D. P. Rebeiro, Divisional Forest Officer, Bijâpur, passed an examination in Kânarese according to the Higher Standard, on the 2nd April 1898.

28*th April*, 1898.—No. 2838.—Mr. Ardesar Nasarvanji Master, L.C.E., Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and

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Sub-divisional Forest Officer, Sátára, is allowed privilege leave of absence for one month and a half.

4.—BENGAL GAZETTE.

Nil. *Nil.*

5.—N.-W.P. AND OUDH GAZETTE.

20*th April*, 1898.—$\frac{\text{No. 1269.}}{\text{II—844 c.}}$—Mr. E. McA Moir, Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Jaunsár Division of the School Forest Circle, special leave on urgent private affairs for six months, with effect from the 16th April, 1898 :—

6.—PUNJAB GAZETTE.

9*th April*, 1898.—No. 166.—A. L. No. 9.—The following changes have taken place in the List of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces, with effect from the dates specified against each :—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from.	REMARKS.
Mr. A. V. Monro	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.	17th April 1897.	Consequent on departure of Mr. Hart on 3 months privilege leave.
Mr. F. Linnell ...	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Cons. 4th Grade.	Do.	...
Mr. C. O. Hanson	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	1st May 1897.	Consequent on the departure of Mr. Caccia on six months' leave on medical certificate.
Mr. A. V. Monro	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	22nd June 1897.	Consequent on the return of Mr. Hart from privilege leave.
Mr. C. O. Hanson	Officiating Deputy Cons. 4th Grade.	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Do.	...

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Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from	Remarks.
Mr. G. G. Minniken	Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Conservator.	23rd June 1897.	Consequent on the departure of Mr. C. F. Elliott on 3 months' privilege leave from afternoon of 22nd June 1897.
Mr. W. King ...	Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade.	23rd July 1897.	
Mr. A. L. McIntire	Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Do.	
Mr. A. V. Monro	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Do.	
Mr. C. O. Hanson	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Do.	
Mr. B. O. Coventry	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	31st July 1897.	Consequent on the departure of Mr. E. M. Coventry on 3 months privilege leave from 1st July 1897.

The above Notification is issued in supersession of Notifications No. 226.—A. L. No. 14,—dated 27th April 1897 (with erratum No. 284, dated 5 June 1897), and No. 285.—A. L. No. 16,—dated 5th June 1897; No. 356.—A. L. No. 17,—dated 8th July 1897; and No. 434.—A. L. No. 12,— dated 4th September 1897.

9th April, 1898.—No. 170.—The Hon'ble the Lieutenant-Governor is pleased to appoint Forest Ranger, Sundar Dás, to officiate as an Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade, with effect from the 1st April, 1898, till the return from furlough of Mr. Fazl Dín, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, or until further orders.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

28th February 1898.—No. 38.—In consequence of the decease of Abdul Rahim, Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, the following promotions are ordered with effect from the 4th February 1898 :—

Muhammad Yasin Khan, D. D. F., Deputy Ranger, 1st grade' sub. *pro tem.*, is confirmed in that grade, *vice* Abdul Rahim, deceased.

Narayan Chandra Datt, D. D. F., Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, to be Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, sub. *pro tem.*, *vice* Muhammad Yasin Khan, confirmed.

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Pattu Lal, D. D. F., Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, sub. *pro tem.*, is confirmed in that grade, *vice* Muhammad Yasin Khan, promoted.

Sheo Prashad, D. D. F., Forester, 1st grade, to be Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, sub. *pro tem.*

1*st April* 1898.—No. 1.—Mihi Lal, Provisional Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, on Rs. 40 per mensem, Betul Forest Division, having passed in surveying, is confirmed in that grade with effect from the 1st March 1897.

5*th April* 1898.—No. 1112.—Privilege eave for three months, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. A. W. Blunt, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Raipur Forest Division, with effect from the 21st April 1898, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

11*th April* 1898.—No. 2.—The date from which the three years' extraordinary leave, without pay, granted to J. D. St. Joseph, by Departmental Order No. 37, dated the 4th February 1898, commenced, is the 1st February 1898.

This cancels so much of that notification as relates to the date of commencement of the leave.

12*th April* 1898 —No. 3.—Under the authority conferred by Section 81, clause (1), of the Forest Department Code, Govind Rao Sapre who was deputed as a stipendiary student to the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, under Rule 8 of the admission rules, printed as Appendix II to the Forest Department Code, and who has obtained a certificate by the Higher Standard of that School, is appointed, on probation, as a Ranger of the 6th grade, with effect from the 1st April 1898, and is posted to the Direction Division.

14*th April* 1898.—No. 4.—Leave without pay for six months, under Article 372 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Rajendra Lal Sahu, Naib Daroga, Temporary Establishment, Jubbulpore Forest Division, with effect from the afternoon of the 22nd March 1898.

16*th April* 1898.—No. 1246.—Mr. Narayan Parshad, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests and Working Plans Assistant, Seoni Forest Division, is appointed to the temporary charge of the Raipur Forest Division, during the absence, on privilege, leave of Mr. A. W. Blunt, Deputy Conservator of Forests, or until further orders.

25*th April* 1898.—No. 4.—Privilege leave for two months, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Amrit Lal Chatterji, Ranger, 2nd grade, Permanent Establishment, Saugor Division, with effect from the 12th April 1898.

30*th April* 1898.—No. 1456.—Mr. D. O. Witt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, has been permitted, by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, to return to duty within the period of the furlough granted him by Order No. 2478, dated the 17th May 1897.

8.—Burma Gazette.

7*th April* 1898.—No. 85.—Mr. F. Linnell, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, reported his arrival in Rangoon on the 1st April 1898, afternoon.

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8*th April* 1898.—No. 3.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 71 (Forests), dated the 28th March 1898, Mr. M. Hill, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. F. Linnell, Assistant Conservator of Forests, received, charge of the Ruby Mines Forest division, on the forenoon of the 6th April 1898.

No. 4.—Mr. M. Hill, Deputy Conservator of Forests, availed himself on the forenoon of the 6th April 1898, of the ten months' furlough granted him in Revenue Department Notification No. 72, dated the 28th March 1898.

11*th April* 1898.—No. 2.—Mr. C. W. A. Bruce, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. C. C. Lowis, I. C. S., officiating Deputy Commissioner, received charge of the Upper Chindwin Forest Division, on the forenoon of the 5th March 1898.

No. 3.—Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received, charge of the Gangaw subdivision, of the Yaw division, on the forenoon of the 6th March 1898.

No. 4.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 70 (Forests), dated the 28th March 1898, Mr. C. C. Lowis, I. C. S., officiating Deputy Commissioner, made over, and Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests, received, charge of the Upper Chindwin division, on the forenoon of the 15th March 1898.

No. 5.—Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Upper Chindwin division, on the afternoon of the 19th March 1898.

18*th April* 1898.—No. 5.—Mr. R. C. A. Pinder, Forest Ranger, 2nd grade, attached to the Pyinmana Revenue range, Pyinmana Forest division, proceeded on two months' privilege leave on the afternoon of the 2nd April 1898.

18*th April* 1898.—No. 6.—Mr. R. C. A. Pinder made over, and Mr. T. W. Forster, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, received, charge of the Pyinmana Revenue range, Pyinmana Forest division, on the afternoon of the 2nd April 1898, in addition to his other duties.

19*th April* 1898.—No. 90.—Under the provisions of Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for one month is granted to Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 5th April 1898.

19*th April* 1898.—No. 91.—Mr. T. W. Forster, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, is reduced to Ranger, 1st grade, with effect from the 1st April 1898.

20*th April* 1898.—No. 96.—Mr. C. V. Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, on probation, is posted to the Taungyin division.

No. 97.—Mr. J. L. Hefferman, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to the Prome Division.

No. 98.—Mr. R. R. O'Hara, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the North Tharrawaddy subdivision, in the Tharrawaddy division.

23*rd April* 1898.—No. 100.—On return from leave Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred to the charge of the Allanmyo subdivision, of the Thayetmyo division.

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9.—Assam Gazette.

21*st April* 1898.—No. 31683.—The following is published :—

The undermentioned officer has been granted by her Majesty's Secretary of State for India extension of leave, as advised in list, dated the 18th March 1898 :

EXTENSION OF LEAVE.

Name.	Service.	Appointment.	Period and nature of extension.
Mr. A. M. Long	...	Assistant Conservator of Forests, Assam.	Six months, on medical certificate.

10.—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

Nil.

11.—Mysore Gazette.

5*th April* 1898.—No. 12752—*Mis.* 2703.—During the absence of Mr. G. E Ricketts, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Clas on a year's leave on a medical certificate, granted in Nofication No. 82772—Ft. F. 60-95 dated 5th March 1898, the following temporary promotions are ordered :—

Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya, from the 3rd to the 2nd Class of Assistant Conservators.

Mr. K. Shamaiengar, from Sub-Assistant Conservator to Assistant Conservator, 3rd Class.

K. Muthaiya, Forest Ranger, 4th (acting 3rd) Class, to act as Sub-Assistant Conservator.

22*nd April* 1898.—No. 10123—*Ft. F.* 91-95.—Under Article 171 of the Mysore Service Regulations Mr. B. Srinivasa Rao, Assistant Conservator of forests, Mysore district, was granted casual leave of absence for three days from the 10th to 12th February 1898, both days inclusive.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1.—GAZETTE OF INDIA.

13th May, 1898.—No. 366-*F.*—Mr. A. P. Grenfell, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade (provisional substantive), North-Western Provinces and Oudh, is, on return from leave, placed on special duty under the Inspector-General of Forests, with effect from the 4th April, 1898.

13th May, 1898.—No. 370-*F.*—With reference to the Notification of this Department, No. 366-F., dated the 13th May, 1898, Mr. A. P. Grenfell, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on special duty, is transferred to Burma, with effect from the 12th May, 1898, but will continue to be employed on special duty until further orders.

26th May, 1898.—No. 418-*F.*—Mr. E. P. Dansey, Conservator of Forests, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, in charge of the Central Forest Circle, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, is granted privilege leave for three months, under Articles 277 and 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the afternoon of the 17th May, 1898.

From the same date and until further orders :—

(1) Mr S. Eardley-Wilmot, Conservator, 2nd grade, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, is appointed to officiate in the 1st grade.

(2) Mr. N. Hearle, Deputy Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, is appointed to officiate as Conservator, 3rd grade, and to be in charge of the Central Forest Circle.

2.—MADRAS GAZETTE.

27th April 1898.—*Appointment.*—Mr. D. A. Stracey, D. D. R., to be Ranger, Sixth Grade, from 1st April, 1898.

30th April, 1898.—*Leave*—K. Gajaraja Mudaliar, Forest Ranger on Rs. 50, North Coimbatore division, is granted privilege leave for one month, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, from or after 16th May, 1898.

30th April, 1898—*Transfers.*—The following transfers are ordered in the subordinate staff of Rangers :—

Sheik Rahamtulla, Acting Ranger from Kurnool to Bellary for employment on the leased forests,

T. V. Sakoji Row, Acting Ranger, from Kistna to Kurnool.

2nd May 1898.—*Dehra Dun Forest School.*—Mr. D. A. Stracey, Deputy Ranger, Northern Circle, returned from Dehra Dun Forest School with higher standard certificate with honors.

5th May 1898.—*Leave.*—K. Aswatham Naidu, Forest Ranger, Kurnool district, is granted two months' leave on medical certificate ; to take effect from the date of expiry of his suspension ordered in service order No. 150 of 1897-98.

5th May 1898.—No. 204.—Mr. J. S. Battie, District Forest-officer, South Canara, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from or after the 25th instant, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

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6th May 1898.—No. 206.—

No.	Name of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
1	Mr. C. E. C. Fischer, Acting Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Kurnool	Acting District Forest-officer.	During the absence of Mr. A. W. Lushington on privilege leave.

6th May 1898.—*Leave.*—R. Venkatesa Mudaliar, Forest Ranger, Arantapur District, is granted privilege leave for one month with effect from 24th March, 1898.

8th May 1898.—*Leave.*—Mr. M. S. Noronha, Ranger on Rs. 80, Madura district, is granted privilege leave under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations for two months from 9th April, 1898.

13th 1898.—*Promotions.*—The following promotions are ordered in the Ranger's class of the Southern Circle, with effect from 1st April. 1898 :—

Names of Rangers.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.
Mr. W. P. Rego	Ranger 3rd ...	Ranger, 2nd...	Permanent.
M. R. Ry. A. S. Mariyapragasam Pillai.	Do. 4th ...	Do. 3rd ...	Do.
M. R. Ry. A R. Rama Row ...	Do. 5th ..	Do. 4th ...	Do.
Mr. A. B. Myers	Do. 5th ...	Do. 4th ...	Sub. *pro tem.*
Mr. E. A. Monisse ...	Do. 5th and Temporary Ranger 4th	Do. 4th ...	Do.
Mr. C. V. Ryan	Ranger, 6th...	Do. 5th ..	Permanent.
M. R. Ry. T. V. Armugam Pillai	Do. 6th...	Do. 5th ...	Do.
M. R. Ry. P. Venkatakrishnama Naidu.	Do. 6th and sub. *pro tem.* Ranger 5th.	Do. 5th ...	Sub. *pro tem.* *vice* Mr. C. V. Ryan on other duty in Burma.

16th May, 1898.—*Promotions.*—The following promotions in the Ranger's class have been sanctioned by the Board of Revenue with effect from 1st April, 1898 :—

No.	Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.
1	W. R. Newman ...	Ranger, 3rd...	Ranger, 2nd...	Permanent.
2	N. S. Veeracharlu ...	Do. 3rd...	Do. 2nd...	Do.
3	P. Ananda Row ...	Do. 3rd .	Do. 2nd...	Sub. *pro tem.*
4	V. Kalyanarama Iyer .	Do. 4th...	Do. 3rd...	Do.
5	L. Hanumanthulu ...	Do. 4th...	Do. 3rd...	Do.
6	R. Venkatesa Mudaliar ...	Do. 5th...	Do. 4th...	Permanent.
7	K. Kama Row ...	Do. 5th...	Do. 4th...	Do.
8	N. Swaminadha Iyer ...	Do. 6th...	Do. 5th...	Do.

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18*th May* 1898.—*Promotions.*—The following promotions are ordered in the Southern Circle, with effect from 1st April, 1898.

Name.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.
L S. Janes ...	Deputy Ranger, 1st.	Ranger, 6th...	Sub. *pro tem vice* P. Venkatakrishnama Naidu.
J. P. Nazareth,	Do. 3rd	Do. 6th...	Acting, *vice* Ranger A. Srinivasa Chamberlain on sick leave.

23*rd May* 1898—*Confirmation.*—A Venkatanarayaniah, Ranger, Sixth Grade, sub. *pro tem.*, Cuddapah district is confirmed in that grade with effect from 1st April, 1898.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

4*th May* 1898.—No. 2980.—The permission granted to Mr. H. Murray, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, to return to duty within the period of his leave *vide* Government Notification No. 2425, dated 6th April, 1898, has been cancelled by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India.

5*th May* 1898.—No. 3025.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. A. G. Edie to hold charge of the office of Working Plans Officer, Northern Circle, in addition to his own duties, during the absence on leave of Mr. W. F. D. Fisher, or pending further orders.

6*th May* 1898.—No. 287.—Messrs R. C. Wroughton, I. F. S., and J. Dodgson, I. F. S., respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest office, South Thána, on the 27th April, 1898, in the afternoon.

11*th May* 1898.—No. 356.—Messrs. W. F. Fisher, I. F. S., and A. G Edie, I. F. S., respectively delivered over and received charge of the Working Plans Divisional Forest Office, N. C., in the afternoon of the 9th May, 1898.

20*th May* 1898.—No. 1057.—Mr. N. D. Satarawala, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Working Plans, S. C., is allowed privilege leave of absence for thirty days with effect from 28th April, 1898.

23*rd May* 1898.—No. 1005.—Messrs. H. W. Keys, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and R. H, Madan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, West Khándesh, on the 18th May, 1898, in the afternoon.

30*th May* 1898.—No. 3608—Mr. S. Hornidge, A. M. I. C. E., Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, is granted privilege leave of absence for three months with effect from 18th June, 1898 or such later date as he may avail himself of it.

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No. 3624.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. Váman Ramchandra Gavánde to hold charge of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, Sholápur, during the absence on leave of Mr. Hornidge A. M. I. C.E., or pending further orders.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

2nd May 1898.—No. 1830-For.—Mr. A. H. Mee, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests attached to the Chittagong Division, held charge of that Division from the afternoon of the 29th March, 1898 to the afternoon of the 16th April, 1898, during the absence of Mr. E. P. Stebbing, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on deputation to the Dehra Dun Forest School.

3rd May 1898.—No. 833 For.—Consequent on the promotion of Mr. E. G. Chester to officiate as Conservator of Forests, Bengal, the following promotions are ordered with effect from the 16th March, 1898.

Mr. F. B. Manson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade, to officiate in the 1st grade of Deputy Conservators

Mr. W. M. Green, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, to officiate in the 2nd grade of Deputy Conservators.

Mr. H. D. D. French, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, to officiate in the 3rd grade of Deputy Conservators.

Mr. F. Trafford, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, substantive *pro tempore*, to officiate in the 4th grade of Deputy Conservators,

Mr. H. A. Farrington, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade, to officiate in the 1st grade of Assistant Conservators.

6th May 1898.—No. 1917 For.—Mr. H. A. Farrington, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade, officiated in the 1st grade of Assistant Conservators in the vacancy caused by the transfer of Mr. W. F. Perree, Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, to Burma (*vide Calcutta Gazette* Notification No. 3474 For., dated the 22nd November, 1897 from the 14th December, 1897 to 3rd January, 1898, both days inclusive.

5.—N-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

21st May 1898.—No. $\frac{1666}{II—482C}$. Mr. B. A. Rebsch, Deputy Conservator of Forests in charge of the Kumaun Forest Division in the Central Circle, to hold charge of the Naini Tal Forest Division, in addition to the other duties, during the absence on deputation of Mr. N. Hearle, or until further orders.

6.—Punjab Gazette

4th May 1898.—No. 201.—*Leave.*—The 18 months' furlough granted to Mr. Fazl Dín Extra Assisstant Conservator of Forests, in Punjab Government Notification No. 51, dated 25th January, 1897, has been extended by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India by a period of two months.

7th May 1898.—No. 204.—The following changes have taken place in the list of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces with effect from the dates specified against each;—

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Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from.	Remarks.
Mr. H. A. Hoghton	Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	5th Feb. 1898.	Consequent on the departure of Mr. J. H. Lace on privilege leave for two months from afternoon of 5th January, 1898.
Mr. A. W. Blunt ..	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.		
Mr. C. M. McCrie ..	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.		
Mr. H. A. Hoghton.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	7th Mar. 1898.	Consequent on the return of Mr. J. H. Lace from privilege leave.
Mr. A. W. Blunt ..	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.		
Mr. C. M. McCrie ..	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade.		
Mr. A. St. V. Beechey	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Assistant Conservator 1st Grade.	21st March 1898.	Consequent on the return of Mr. F. Linnell from privilege leave
Mr. E. A. Down ..	Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st Grade.	28th Mr. 1898.	Consequent on Mr. W. P. Thomas, officiating Conservator, *vice* Mr. C. Bagshawe on one year's furlough.
Mr. H. A. Hoghton	Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd Grade.		
Mr. R. J. P. Pinder	Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade.		
Mr. A. St. V. Beechey	Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade,	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.		

7th May 1898.—No. 208.—Mr. S. L. Kenny having passed all subjects prescribed by Section 72 of Forest Department Code, is promoted to Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st Grade, with effect from the 14th March, 1898, the date on which he completed his examinations.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

1st March 1898.—No 143.—Leave on Medical certificate for four months, under Article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mukat Behari Lal, Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, Permanent Establishment, Mandla Forest Division, with effect from the 5th January 1898.

7th May 1898.—No. 7 —Privilege leave for 11 days, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Tirath Parshad, Ranger, 5th grade, Permanent Establishment, Betul Forest Division, with effect from the 28th April, 1898.

7th May 1898.—No. 1526.—Mr. A. M. F. Caccia, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been permitted, by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, to return to duty within the period of the furlough granted him by the followiug orders:—

No. 2250 dated the 29th April, 1897
No. 4782, dated the 4th November, 1897.
No. 476, dated the 4th February, 1898

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7th May 1898.—No. 1532.—Privilege leave for one month, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. Ramchandar Krishna, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Balaghat, with effect from the date on which he may be permitted to avail himself of it.

7th May 1898.—No. 1534.—Mr. A. M. Long, Assistant Conservator of Forests, has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, six months' leave on medical certificate in extension of the furlough granted him by the Assam Administration by the following Notifications published in the *Assam Gazette*

No. 1420-G, dated the 26th February, 1897.
No. 5350-G, dated the 13th August, 1897
No. 7409-G, dated the 11th October, 1897.

9th May 1898.—No :—Leave without pay for three months, under Article 372 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mukat Behari Lal, Deputy Ranger 2nd grade, Permanent Establishment, Mandla Forest Division, in continuation of the four month's leave on medical certificate granted him by Departmental Order No 143, dated 1st March 1898.

9th May 1898.—No. 10—The following transfers of Rangers are made.

Bhaya Lal, Ranger, 4th grade, from the Rajaburari Range Hoshangabad Forest Division, to the Khandwa Range Nimar Forest Division.

Dhondu Narain Despande, Ranger, 6th grade, from the Khandwa Range, Nimar Forest Division, to the Rajaburari Range, Hoshangabad Forest Division, in the interest of the public service.

19th May 1898 —No 1768 —On return from the furlough granted him by Order No. 2478, dated the 13th May, 1897, Mr. D. O. Witt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is temporarily attached to the office of the Conservator of Forests, Northern Circle, Central Provinces, in connection with the preparation of Working Plans.

23rd May 1898.—No. 1840.—Choga Lal, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, attached to the Bilaspur Forest Division, is permitted to resign his appointment with effect from the 1st April, 1898.

8.—Burma Gazette

26th April 1898.— No. 7.—Under the provisions of Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations. privilege leave for six weeks, with effect from the 1st May, 1898, is granted to Maung At, Ranger, III grade, Lewé Range. of the Pyinmana forest division.

26th April 1898 —No. 8.— With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 90 (Forests), dated the 19th April, 1898, Mr. J. Copeland Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Mandalay division on the afternoon of the 10th April, 1898, and Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator of Forests, availed himself of the one month's privilege leave granted him in the above notification from the same date.

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28*th April* 1898.—No. 4.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 100 (Forests), dated the 23rd April, 1898, Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, assumed charge of the Allanmyo subdivision of the Thayetmyo division on the afternoon of the 26th April, 1898.

4*th May* 1898.—No. 106 Mr. A. Weston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been permitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

5*th May* 1898.—No. 107 Mr. C. W. A. Bruce, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Kindat to the charge of the Pyinmana Forest division.

5*th May* 1898.—No. 108.—Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is appointed to the charge of the Upper Chindwin Forest division, *vice* Mr. C. W. A. Bruce.

11*th May* 1898.—No. 120.—The following alterations in rank are ordered in the Forest Department :—

(1) With effect from the 26th February, 1898, consequent on the appointment of Mr. H. B. Ward, Deputy Conservator, 1st grade (*substantive provisional*), to officiate as Conservator :
   - Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator 2nd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.
   - Mr. H. Jackson, Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.
   - Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Consorvator, 4th grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

(2) With effect from the 6th April, 1898, consequent on the departure on furlough of Mr. M. Hill, Deputy Conservator 3rd grade :
   - Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.
   - Mr. F. Linnel, Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

(3) With effect from the 11th April, 1898, consequent on the departure on privilege leave of Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.
   - Mr. H. B. Anthony, Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.
   - Mr. G. F. S. Blackwell, Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade,
   - Mr. A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade *substantive provisional*) to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

19*th May* 1898.—No. 129.—Under the provisions of Article 371 (*a*) of the Civil Service Regulations, furlough for one year is granted to Mr. C. W. Allan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he may avail himself of it.

19*th May* 1898.—No. 130.—Mr. G. F. R. Blackwell, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is appointed to hold charge of the Bassein-Myaungmya Forest division in addition to his other duties as a temporary measure.

22nd *May* 1898.—No. 5.—Pursuant to Revenue Department Notifications Nos. 129 and 130, dated the 19 May 1898, Mr. C. W. Allan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of the

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Bassein-Myaungmya division on the afternoon of the 15th May 1898, by Mr. G. F. R. Blackwell, Deputy Conservator of Forests.

25th May 1898.—No. 137.—Under the provisions of Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for two months and twenty-four days is granted to Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he may avail himself of it,

26th May 1898.—Mr. Carr is permitted to overstay his leave by 15 days under Article 282 (ii) of the Civil Service Regulations.

No. 139.—Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Mandalay to the charge of the Upper Chindwin Forest division.

27th May 1898.—No 141.—Mr. F. Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Kado to the charge of the Bassein-Myaungmya forest division.

No. 142.—On return from leave of Mr. D. H. Allan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to Kado.

9.—ASSAM GAZETTE.

19th May 1898.—No. 3995G.—With reference to the orders contained in the Notification by the Government of India in the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, No. 55F.—207-12. dated the 20th January, 1898, the following reversions and promotions are ordered among Deputy and Assistant Conservators of Forests in Assam.

(I) Consequent on the return from furlough of Mr. J. L. Pigot, Deputy Conservator, Second Grade, and his transfer, temporarily, together with the appointment held by him, to Coorg, with effect from the 23rd December, 1897.—

Mr. J. L. Pigot, Deputy Conservator, Second Grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, First Grade.

Mr. D. P. Copeland, Deputy Conservator, Third Grade, and Officiating Deputy Conservator, First Grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, Second Grade.

Mr. H. G. Young, Deputy Conservator, Fourth Grade, and Officiating Deputy Conservator, Second Grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, Third Grade.

Mr. T. J. Campbell, Officiating Deputy Conservator, Third Grade, to revert to his substantive appointment of Deputy Conservator, Fourth Grade.

(II) Consequent on the transfer of Mr. A. M. Long, Assistant Conservator, First Grade, on leave, to the Central Provinces, with effect from the 20th January, 1898.

Mr. F. E. B. Lloyd, Assistant Conservator, Second Grade, and Officiating Deputy Conservator, Fourth Grade, is appointed substantively to be Assistant Conservator, First Grade, and will continue to officiate as Deputy Conservator, Fourth Grade.

10.—MYSORE GAZETTE.

10th May 1898.—No. 10665—*Ft. F.* 119-95—Under Article 171 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. H. Muthappa, Assistant Conservator

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of Forests, Bangalore District, is granted casual leave of absence for five days with effect from the 10th May, 1898, or such other date as he may avail himself of the same.

10*th May* 1898.—No. 10668—*Ft. F.* 62-95—Under Article 171 of Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. M. G. Rama Rao, Acting Assistant Conservator of Forests, Mysore District, is granted casual leave of absence for four days with effect from the 2nd May, 1898.

12*th May* 1898.—No. 10698—*Ft. F.* 1497.—Under Article 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. K. Muthaiya, Officiating Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Kolar district, is granted privilege leave of absence for two months with effect from the 17th April, 1898.

14*th May* 1898.—No. 10814—*Ft. F.* 64-95—Under Article 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. M. Venkatanarnappa, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Tumkur district, is granted privilege leave of absence for one month with effect from the 6th May, 1898, the Assistant Commissioner of head-quarters being in charge of the Forest Office during such leave.

16*th May* 1898.—No. 10907—*Ft. F.* 92-95—Under Article 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya, Assistant Conservator of Forests on special duty in the Kadur district, is granted privilege leave of absence for one month with effect from the 20th April, 1898.

Mr. B Hira Singh, Assistant Conservator of Forests, will, in addition to his own duties, be in charge of the Special duty office during the absence of Mr. Sitaramaiya on leave or until further orders.

28*th May* 1898.—No. 11228—*Ft. F.* 119-95—Under Article 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. H. Muttappa, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Bangalore district, is granted privilege leave of absence for one month and twenty days, with effect from the 2nd June, 1893 or such other date as he may avail himself of the same.

Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya, Assistant Conservator of Forests on special duty in the Kadur district, will act as District Forest Officer, Bangalore, during the absence of Mr. Muttappa on leave or until further orders.

28*th May* 1898.—No. 11231—*Ft. F.* 92-95—Mr. Sitaramaiya, Assistant Conservator of Forests on special duty in the Kadur district, having availed himself of the privilege leave granted to him in Notification No. 10907—Ft. F. 92-95, dated 16th May, 1898, from the 20th April, 1898, and returned to duty on the afternoon of the 12th May, 1898, the unexpired portion of the leave (namely, 7 days) is hereby cancelled.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1.—Gazette of India.

1st June 1898.—No. 439-*F.*—The services of Mr. B. B. Osmaston, Instructor at the Imperial Forest School Dehra Dun, are replaced at the disposal of the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, with effect from the afternoon of the 18th April 1898,

Mr. A. M. F. Caccia, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, Central Provinces, is, on return from leave, transferred temporarily to the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, and appointed Instructor at the Imperial Forest School, with effect from the afternoon of the 5th May 1898.

3rd June 1898.—No. 441-*F.*—In consequence of the return to duty, in the forenoon of the 24th March 1898, of Mr. H. C. Hill, Conservator of Forests, first grade, from the furlough granted him in the Notification of this Department, No. 756—58-4 (General), dated the 19th March 1896, the following changes are ordered.

(i) Mr. E. P. Dansey, Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, to revert to his substantive grade from the 23rd to the 27th Maych 1898 (both dates inclusive), but to officiate again in the 1st grade from the 28th idem untitl further orders.

(ii) Mr. A. Smythies, Conservator, 3rd (officiating 2nd) grade Burma, to revert to his substantive grade from the 23rd to 27th March 1898 (both dates inclusive), but to officiate again in the 2nd grade from the 28th March to the 1st April 1898 (both dates inclusive).

(iii) The promotion of Mr. S. E. Wilmot, Conservator, 2nd grade, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, to officiate in the 1st grade, from the 28th March to the 1st April 1898 (both dates inclusive), ordered in the Notification of this Department, No. 281—56-7-F., dated the 19th April last, is cancelled.

2.—Madras Gazette.

25th May 1898.—*Promotions.*—The following promotions in the Rangers' class are ordered with effect from 1st April 1898 :—

No.	Name.	District to which attached.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.
1	T. Bapu Row ...	North Arcot...	3rd ...	2nd.
2	M. Callanan ...	Cuddapah ...	4th ...	3rd.
3	J. Tapp ...	On foreign service in Jeypore.	4th ...	3rd.

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No.	Name.	District to which attached.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.
4	Saiyid Burhan-ud-din Sahib	Salem ...	4th ...	3rd.
5	J. A. Daly ...	Do. ..	4th ...	3rd sub. *pro tem.*
6	M. Shams-ud-din Sahib ...	Do. ...	5th ..	4th.
7	T. Narayanaswami Aiyer...	Trichinopoly,	5th ..	4th.
8	G. W. Thomson ...	North Arcot...	5th and acting 4th grade sub. *pro tem.*	4th and to act in the 3rd grade, sub. *pro tem. vice* J. Tapp on other duty.
9	T. Arumuga Mudaliar ...	Do. ...	5th .	4th.
10	C. Subramania Aiyer ..	Cuddapah ...	5th ...	4th.
11	T. Shanmuga Mudaliar ..	Nellore ...	6th ...	5th.
12	C. Rajagopal Naidu ...	Cuddapah ...	6th ...	5th.
13	V. C. Doraiswamy Pillai ...	South Arcot...	6th ...	5th.
14	A. Subba Row ...	North Arcot...	6th ...	5th.
15	S. P. Kulesekaram Chetty...	Do. ...	6th ...	5th.
16	T. Subbaroyalu Naidu ...	South Arcot ..	6th ...	5th.
17	K. P. Krishna Aryer ...	North Arcot...	6th ...	5th.

27*th May* 1898.—*Leave.*—G. Nagarathnam Naidu, Ranger, Kurnool district, is granted one month's privilege leave, to take effect from or after the 1st June, 1898,

28*th May* 1898.—*Promotion.*—The following acting promotions are ordered with effect from 1st June, 1898, subject to the conditions that (1) the officers so promoted should revert to the Deputy Rangers' class when qualified men are available to take their places, and (2) they should cease to draw pay as Rangers if they are not actually holding range charge or are deputed for training to the Forest School :—

No.	Name.	Present appointment.	Apointment to which promoted.
1	C. Dhan Singh ...	Deputy Ranger, 1st grade.	Forest Ranger, 6th grade, sub. *pro tem.*
2	C. Ramaswami Aiyengar.	Deputy Ranger, 1st grade.	Forest Ranger, 6th grade, sub. *pro tem.*
3	P. V. Alagirswami Naidu.	Deputy Ranger, 1st grade.	Forest Ranger, 6th grade, sub. *pro tem.*
4	K. R. Manikka Mudaliar,	Deputy Ranger, 1st grade.	Forest Ranger, 6th grade, sub. *pro tem.*

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29th May 1898.—*Transfer*.—Mr. A. B. Myers, Ranger, Fourth Grade, is transfered temporarily from Nilgiris to South Coimbatore—to join forthwith.

1st June 1898.—*No.* 254.—Mr. C. J. Wontersz, Acting District Forest Officer, South Arcot, is granted privilege leave for one month and twenty-six days, with effect from or after the 10th June, 1898, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

4th June 1898.—*Transfers*.—The following transfers are ordered in the subordinate staff of the Northern Circle :—

A. N. Bhujanga Row, Acting Ranger, from Kistna to Bellary.

M. Balaji Singh, Ranger, from Bellary to Anantapur.

N. S. Ananta Charlu, Ranger, from Anantapur to Kistna.

7th June 1898.—*Transfer*.—T. Bapu Row, Ranger, Second Grade, from the North Arcot district to the Cuddapah district.

13th June 1898.—*Leave*—Mr. E. A. Monisse, Ranger, Fourth Grade, Nilgiri district, is granted privilege leave, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, for one month from 7th June 1898.

Extention of leave.—The two months' privilege leave granted in S. O. No. 181 of 1897-98 to Ranger Mr. M. S. Noronha, Madura district, is extended by one month.

15th June 1898.—*Leave*.—Two months' privilege leave on medical certificate is granted to S. Eggianarayana Sastri, Ranger, Bellary district from date of relief.

18th June 1898—*Transfer*.—D. J. Evers, Ranger, Sixth Grade, from the Tanjore district to the Salem district on relief by T. Krishnaswamy Aiyangar.

18th *June* 1898.—*No.* 284—M R Ry. T. Rama Rau Garu, Deputy-Collector, Bellary, is granted privilege leave for two months, with effect from the date of relief under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

No. 285.—Mr. C. E. Brasier Acting Conservator of Forests, Southerns Circle, is granted special leave on urgent private affairs for six months with effect from the date of relief under article 348 of the Civil Service Regulations.

18th June 1898.—No 192—

Name and designation of officer.	District.	Nature of charge	Remarks.
Mr. W. W. Batchelor, Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	North Arcot.	Acting District Forest Officer.	During the employment of Mr F C I. Cowley-Brown as Acting District Forest Officer, Salem. To join on return from leave.

3.—BOMBAY GAZETTE.

7th June 1898.—No. 1400.—Messrs. E. G. Oliver and W. R. Woodrow, Deputy-Conservators of Forests, respectively delivered over

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and received charge of the Dharwar Forest Division on the afternoon of the 2nd day of June, 1898.

8*th June* 1898.—No. 1284.—Mr. A. N. Master, Sub-Division Forest Officer, Satara, handed over charge of the duties in the afternoon of the 9th May, 1898 to Mr. A. D. Wilkins, Divisional Forest Officer, Satara, and proceeded on one and a half months' privilege leave from that date, after office hours.

8*th June* 1898.—No. 1418.—Mr. N. D. Satarawala, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Working Plans, who was on thirty days' privilege leave, granted by the undersigned, from 28th April, 1898 returned to duty on the 27th May, 1898, in the afternoon.

No. 3803.—Mr. W. E. Copleston, Assistant Conservator of Forests First Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, S. C. is allowed privilege leave of absence for three months from 25th June, 1898 on such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

18*th June* 1898.—No. 1465.—Mr. D. A. Thomson, Assistant Conservator, delivered over and Mr. W. A. Talbot, Deputy-Conservator, received charge of, the Belgaum Forest Division on the afternoon of the 8th day of June 1898.

18*th June* 1898.—No. 3901.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. N. D. Sataravala, L. C. E. to hold charge of the office of Working Plans Officer, Southern Circle, during the absence on leave of Mr. W. E. Copleston or pending further orders.

18*th June* 1898.—No. 1488.—Messrs. A. D. Wilkins, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, and A. N. Master, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Satara Subdivision Office on the 10th June, 1898, before noon.

18*th Jnne* 1898.—No. 4039.—Mr. A. T. Shuttleworth, Conservator of Forests C. C., is allowed privilege leave of absence for three months with effect from 16th July, 1898 or such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

22*nd June* 1898.—No. 4116.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments during the absence of Mr. A. T. Shuttleworth.

Mr. F. R. Dasai to act as Conservator of Forests, First Grade.

Mr. W. G. Betham to act as Conservator of Forests, Secoud Grade.

Mr. T. B. Fry to act as Conservator of Forests, Third Grade.

Mr. C. Greatheed to hold administrative charge of the Gentral Circle pending further orders.

4.—Bengal Gazette

1*st June* 1898—No. 98 T. R.—Mr. H. A. Farrington, Assistant Conservator of Forests, in charge Jalpaiguri Forest Division, is granted privilege leave for three months, under articles 277 and 291 of the Civil Regulations, with effect from the 29th June, 1898, or such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

Mr. W. M. Green, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, in charge Kurseong Forest Division, is placed in charge of the Jalpaiguri Forest Division in addition to his other duties, during the absence, on leave, of Mr. Farrington, or until further orders.

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6th June 1898.—No. 136T.—R.—Mr. T. H. Monteath, Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Darjeeling Forest Division, is granted three months' Examination leave, under section 69 of the Forest Department Code, with effect from the 1st June, 1898, or from such subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

11th June 1898.—No. 206T, R.—Mr. F. Trafford, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, sub *pro tem.* is confirmed in that grade, with effect from 12th December, 1898, from which date Mr. W. H. Lovegrove was transferred to the North-Western Provinces. Mr. F. Trafford will continue to officiate as Deputy-Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, till further orders.

27th June 1898.—No. 3464A.—The report of the Central Examination Committee having been received on the result of the Half-yearly Departmental Examination of Assistant Magistrates and others, held on the 5th May, 1898 and the following two days, is published for general information :—

The following Forest Officer has passed in the subject noted against his name:—

1. Mr. R, G. A. Hannah ... Hindustani by the Higher Standard.

5.—N-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

7th June 1898.—No. $\frac{1865}{II-844C}$, Mr. B. B. Osmaston, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, whose services have been replaced at the disposal of this Government, to the charge of the Jaunsar Forest Division of the School Circle.

23rd June 1898.—No. $\frac{2125}{II-844C}$, With effect from the 10th April, 1898, and until further orders, Pandit Sada Nand Gairola, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, to be Working Plans Officer for the Jaunsar Forest Division, under the orders of the Conservator of Forests, School Circle.

30th June 1898.—No. $\frac{2237}{II-595C}$, Transfer. Mr. F. F. R. Channer, Assistant Conservator of Forests, from the Kheri to the Gonda Forest Division, Oudh Circle.

6.—Burma Gazette

3rd June 1898.—No. $\frac{237}{A.\ L.\ No.\ 10}$, Mr. R. J. Pinder, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, and Khan Bahadur Munshi Fazal Din, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of the Shahpur Forest Division on the forenoon of the 6th May, 1898 consequent on the former's transfer to the Bashahr Forest Division to which he has been attached,

Khan Bahadur Munshi Fazal Din will hold charge of the Shahpur Division in addition to the charge of the Chenab Division.

10th June 1898.—No. 245.—*Leave.*—Messrs. A.V. Monro, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, and W. Mayes, Assistant Conservator of Forests,

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respectively made over and received charge of the Hazara Forest Division on the afternoon of the 19th May, 1898, consequent on the departure of the former on 1 months and 15 day's privilege leave.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

20th May 1898.—Balkrishna D. Ukidwe, D. D. R., is appointed a Forest Ranger of the 6th grade on Rs. 50 per mensem, with effect from the date on which he reports himself for duty to the Forest Divisional Officer, Nagpur-Wardha.

11th July, 1898.—No. 2017—Mr. H. E. Bartlett, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, attached to the Nimar Forest Division, is transferred to the charge of the Damoh Forest Division, *vice* Mr. F. C. Hicks, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, retired.

11th July 1898—No. 2018.—Mr. G. F. Taylor, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, Saugor Forest Division, is appointed to hold charge of the Damoh Forest Division, in addition to his own duties, until relieved by Mr. Bartlett.

23rd June 1898.—No. 2157.—Kesab Anand, late a Forester in the Seoni Forest Division, is dismissed from Government service with effect from the 29th March, 1897.

8.—Punjab Gazette

27th May 1898.—No. 145—Mr. W. H. Craddock, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Taunggyi and posted to the Pyinmana division as a temporary measure.

30th May 1898.—No. 146.—Under the provisions of Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations privilege leave for one day is granted to Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, in continuation of the leave granted in this department Notification No. 90, dated the 19th April, 1898.

30th May 1898.—No. 9.—Mr. H. Mc. L. Carson, a passed student from the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, reported his arrival at Mandalay on the 21st April, 1898, from which date he was appointed on the temporary establishment as a Forest Ranger on a salary of Rs. 100 per mensem, and posted to the Bhamo division.

Has assumed charge of his duties in the Bhamo division on the forenoon of the 25th April, 1898.

30th May 1898—No. 10.—Mr. F. C. Purkis, a passed student from the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, reported his arrival at Mandalay on the 21st April, 1898, from which date he was appointed on the temporary establishment as a Forest Ranger on a salary of Rs. 100 per mensem, and posted to the Pyinmana division.

He assumed charge of his duties in the Pyinmana division on the afternoon of the 23rd April, 1898.

2nd June 1898.—No. 6.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 139, dated the 26th May, 1898, Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, made over charge of his

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duties as Personal Assistant to the Conservator of Forests, Western Circle, on the afternoon of the 2nd June, 1898.

6th June 1898—No. 11.—Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator of Forests, reported his return from the privilege leave granted him in Revenue Department Notifications Nos. 90 and 146 (Forests), dated the 19th April, and 30th May, 1898, respectively on the 11th May 1898, and received charge of the Mandalay division from Mr. C. M. Hodgson. Deputy-Conservator of Forests, on the afternoon of the same date.

9th June 1898.—No. 157.—Mr. F. Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, is promoted to the 2nd grade of Extra Assistant Conservator, with effect from the date on which he may assume charge of the Bassein-Mvaungmva Forest division.

10th June 1898.—No. 176.—This department Notification No. 61, dated the 18th March, 1898, granting examination leave for two months to Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests is hereby cancelled.

10th June 1898.—No. 173.—Mr. E. A. O'Bryen, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, *provisional substantive*, is confirmed in that grade, with effect from the 12th May, 1898.

10th June No. 174.—Mr. A. P. Grenfell, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, is appointed to the 3rd grade, *provisional substantive*, of Deputy-Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 12th May 1898, the date on which his services have been transferred to Burma.

11th June 1898.—No. 12.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 139, dated the 26th May, 1898, Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. H. C. Hill, Conservator of Forests, received, charge of the Direction division, Eastern Circle, on the afternoon of the 6th instant.

16th June 1898.—No. 181.—Under the provisions of Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for one month is granted to Mr. R. R. O'Hara, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 2nd July, 1898, or any subsequent date on which he mignt avail himself of it.

16th June 1898.—No. 182.—Mr. J. J. Rorie, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the North Tharrawaddy subdivision during the absence on leave of Mr. O'Hara, or until further orders.

16th June 1898.—No. 13.—Mr. H. C. Hill, Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. J. Nisbet, officiating Conservator of Forests, received, charge of, the Direction division, Eastern Circle, on the afternoon of the 10th instant.

20th June 1898.—No. No. 7.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 139, dated the 26th May, 1898, Mr. C. W. Doveton Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over. and Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, received charge, of the Upper Chindwin division on the afternoon of the 13th June, 1898.

21st June 1898.—No. 186.—On his return from leave Mr. A. Weston, Deputy-Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the Attaran Forest division.

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9.—Assam Gazette.

4th June 1898.—No. 4497G.—On the report of the Central Examination Committee, the Chief Commissioner directs the publication, for general information, of the results of the Half-yearly Examination of Assistant Commissioners Extra-Assistant Commissioners, and others held on the 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, and 13th May, 1898 :

Name.	Subjects taken up by Candidates.		Subjects in which Passed.		Subjects in which still reqired to pass.	
	Higher Standard.	Lower Standard.	Higher Standard.	Lower Standard.	Higher Standard.	Lower Standard.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Forest Rangers.						
Babu Mamut Ram Medhi ..	Forest Law *				General Law without books (Revenue questions).	
Babu Basanta Kumar Goswami	Proceedure and Accounts * ...		Proceedure and Accounts * ...			

24th June 1898.—No. 4967G.—Privilege leave of absence for two months and 27 days, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. A. R. Dicks, Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Goalpara Forest Division, with effect from the 22nd July, 1898, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

10—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

21st May 1898.—No. 1414-I-A.—His Excelleney the Viceroy and Governor-General is pleased to confer the little of Rai Bahadur as a personal distinction upon—

Mansukh Rai, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests in Berar.

Reproduced from Punjab Gazette.

7th May 1898.—No. 208.—Mr. S. L. Kenny, having passed all subjects prescribed by section 72 of the Forest Department Code, is promoted to Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, with effect from the 14th March, 1898. the date on which he completed his examinations.

11.—Mysore Gazette.

14th April 1898.—No. 9808—*Ft. F.* 43-96.—Under Article 172 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. H. Srinivasa Rao, Officiating Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests. Mysore district, is grandted casual

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leave of absence for fifteen days with effect from such date as he may avail himsef of the same

11*th June* 1898.—No. 11529—*Ft. F.* 43-96.—Mr. H. Srinivasa Rao. Acting Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Mysore district having availed himself of the fifteen days' casual leave granted to him in Notification No. 9808.—Ft. F. 43-96. dated 14th April, 1898, from the afternoon of the 14th April, and returned to duty on the forenoon of the 29th April, unexpired portion of the leave' *viz.*, one day, is hereby cancelled.

11*th June* 1898.—No. 11536. *Ft, F.* 119-95—Mr. H. Muttappa Assistant Conservator of Forests, Bangalore district having availed himself of the five days', casual leave granted to him in Notification No. 10665—Ft. F. 191-95, dated 10th May, 1898, the forenoon of the 25th and returned to duty on the forenoon of the 28th April, 1898, the unexpired portion of the leave, *viz.*, two days, is hereby caucelled.

14*th June* 1898.—No. 11649—*Ft. F.* 119-95.—In supersession of so much of Government Notification No. 81228—Ft. F. 119-95, dated the 29th May, 1898, as relates to the temporary transfer of Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya to the Bangalore district, Mr. C. Appaiya, B. A., Assistant Conservator of Forests, doing duty in the Conservator's office, is appointed to act as District Forest Officer, Bangalore, during the absence of Mr, H. Muttappa on leave.

16*th June* 1898.—No. 11771—*Ft. F.* 64-95.—Mr. M. Venkatnaranappa, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Tumkur district, having availed himself of the one month's privilege leave granted to him in Notification No. 10814—Ft. F. 64-95, dated 14th May, 1898, from the forenoon of the 6th May, 1898 and returned to duty on the forenoon of the 30th idem, the unexpired portion of the leave, *viz.*, 6 days, is hereby cancelled.

16*th June* 1898.—No. 11775—*Ft. F.* 46-96.—Under Articie 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. B. Hira Singh. Assistant Conservator of Forests, Kadur district, is granted priviilege leave of absence for lwo months, with effect from such date as he may avail himself of the same.

Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya, Assistant Conservator of Forests on special duty in the Kadur district, will act as District Forest Officer, Kadur, during the absence of Mr. Hira Singh on leave or until orders.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETES.

1.—Gazette of India.

4th July 1898.—No. 693.—Babu Upendra Nath Kanjilal, Vernacular Instructor at the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from the 1st of April, 1898.

Pandit Sadanand Gairola, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests in the North-Western Provinces, is appointed to officiate as Vernacular Instructor at the Imperial Forest School in addition to his own duties during the absence of Babu Upendra Nath Kanjilal.

2.—Madras Gazette.

22nd June 1898.—*Extension of leave.*—An extension of fifteen days' privilege leave is granted to G. Nagarathnam Naidu, Ranger, Kurnool district, in continuation of the leave already granted in Service Order No. 187 of 1897-98.

23rd June 1898.—*Leave.*—M. R. Ry. A. S. Mariapragasam Pillai, Forest Ranger, Third Grade, South Coimbatore Division, is granted privilege leave, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, for three months from 29th May 1898.

28th June 1898.—*Cancelment of leave.*—The two years' furlough gazetted on page 225 of Part II of the *Fort St. George Gazette* dated 8th February 1898, as having been granted to Ranger S. Solomon, is cancelled.

30th June 1898.—No. 308.—Mr. H. A. Gass, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Madras, has been granted by the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for India an extension of one week's extraordinary leave without pay.

1st July 1898.—No. 307—In modification of Notification No. 592, published at page 1539, Part I of the *Fort St. George Gazette* dated 14th December 1897, Mr. C. du Pre Thornton, District Forest Officer, Godavari, is granted furlough for one year, with effect from the 23rd April 1898, under article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations.

5th July 1898.—*Privilege leave.*—To M. Shams-ud-din Sahib, Ranger, Fifth Grade, Salem district, for two months under article 291, of the Civil Service Regulations.

9th July 1898.—*Transfer.*—T. Subroyalu Naidu, Ranger, Fifth Grade, from the South Arcot district to the Trichinopoly district on relief by Deputy Ranger, S. Vasudeva Reddi.

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12*th July* 1898.—*Extension of leave.*—The one month's privilege leave from 16th May 1898, granted in S.O. 178 of 1897-98 to K Gajaraja Mudaliar, Forest Ranger, Sixth Grade, North Coimbatore division, is commuted into leave on medical certificate and the same extended by one month.

14*th July* 1898.—*Extension of leave.*—The one month's privilege leave granted to Ranger Mr. E. A. Monisse, Nilgiri district, and published in the *Fort St. George Gazette* dated 21st June 1898, Part II, page 860, is extended by two months.

16*th July* 1898.—*Leave.*—Mr. W. P. Rego, Forest Ranger, Second Grade, South Malabar division, is granted privilege leave for three months, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, from 1st August 1898.

19*th July* 1898.—No. 344.—APPOINTMENTS.

No.	Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.
1	Mr. F. C. L. Cowley-Brown.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade, and acting in the 3rd Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade.	Acting	During the absence of Mr. C. du P. Thornton on furlough. The appointment will take effect from the date of Mr. Cowley-Brown reverting to the 4th grade on the return of Mr. T. P. Peaks from privilege leave and will continue until the return of Mr. H. A. Gass from special leave.
2	Mr. H. B. Bryant.	Do.	Do.	Do.	During the absence of Mr. Thornton on furlough. The appointment to take effect from the date of Mr. Gass' return from special leave.
3	Mr. W. W. Batchelor.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade, and Acting Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th Grade.	Do.	*Vice* No. 2.

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22nd July 1898.—*Privilege leave*—To A. Venkatanarayaniah, Ranger, Sixth Grade, Cuddapah district, for fifteen days, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, from 26th July 1898.

23rd July 1898.—*Confirmation.*—J. A. Daly, Ranger, Third Grade, sub. *pro tem.*, in the Salem district, is confirmed in that grade with effect from 1st April 1898.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

24th June 1898.—No. 1608.—Messrs. W. R. Govande, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, and L. Napier, Deputy Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Poona Sub-division Forest Office on the 16th June 1898, in the afternoon.

27th June 1898.—No. 1639.—Messrs. S. Hornidge, A.M.I.C.E., Deputy Conservator of Forests, and W. R. Govande, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Sholapur, on the 17th June 1898, in the afternoon.

27th June 1898.—No. 4217.—The privilege leave for three months granted to Mr. W. E. Copleston, Assistant-Conservator of Forests, First Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, S. C., in Government Notification No. 3803, dated 8th June 1898, published at page 500 of the *Bombay Government Gazette* of the 9th idem, Part I, is cancelled.

27th June 1898.—No 4217 *A*.—Government Notification No. 3901, dated 10th June 1898, published at page 520 of the *Bombay Government Gazette* of the 16th idem, Part I, appointing Mr. N. D. Satarawala, L.C.E., to hold charge of the office of Working Plans Officer, Southern Circle, during the absence on leave of Mr. W. E. Copleston or pending further orders, is cancelled.

27th June 1898.—No. 4258.—Mr. W. A. Wallinger, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Panch Mahâls, has been allowed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, leave on medical certificate for six months in lieu of privilege leave for three months granted by Government Notification No. 2447, dated 6th April 1898.

11th July 1898.—No. 4517.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. D. A. Thomson to act as Divisional Forest Officer, Belgaum, during the absence of Mr. W. A. Talbot or pending further orders.

20th July 1898—No. 4723.—Mr. J. Dodgson, Assistant-Conservator of Forests, first Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, Central Thâna, is allowed privilege leave of absence for two months and twenty-nine days with effect from 13th August 1898 or such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

20th July 1898.—No. 2654.—Mr. W. A. Talbot, Deputy Conservator of Forests, delivered over, and Mr. D. A. Thomson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, received charge of the Belgaum Forest Division on the afternoon of the 14th day of July 1898.

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25th July 1898.—No. 4810.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. W. F. D. Fisher to hold charge of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, Central Thána, in addition to his own duties, during the absence on leave of Mr. J. Dodgson or pending further orders.

27th July 1898.—No. 4865.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased—

to appoint Mr. Balvant Ganesh Deshpánde to the Extra-Assistant Conservatorship, Second Grade, transferred from the Imperial to the Provincial list;

to promote Mr. Chunilal Gulabchand Dalia, L. C. E., to the Third Grade of Extra Assistants;

and to appoint Mr. Harihar Anant Nadkarni, L. C. E., to the Fourth Grade, and to post him to the Southern Circle.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

12th July 1898.—No. 2632 A—In continuation of the Notification No. 3464 A., dated the 27th June, 1898, it is hereby notified that Mr. R. M. Kavanagh, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Andamans, passed in Hindustani by the Higher Standard at the Departmental Examination of Assistant Magistrates and others, held in May 1898.

5.—N-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

1st July 1898—No. $\frac{2245}{\text{II}-720\text{e}}$ Mr. H. G. Billson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Gonda Forest Division, Oudh Circle, privilege leave for three months with effect from the 26th July 1898.

8th July 1898.—No. $\frac{2343}{\text{II}-595\text{c}.}$ Mr. F. F. Channer, Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Gonda Forest Division of the Oudh Circle, to hold charge of that division during the absence on leave of Mr. H. G. Billson, or until further orders.

20th July 1898—No. $\frac{2490}{\text{II}-116\text{c}.}$ Mr. W. Shakespear, Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Pilibhit Forest Division, Oudh Circle, privilege leave for two months and twenty nine days.

20th July 1898.—No. $\frac{2491}{\text{II}-116\text{c}.}$ Mr. J. C. Tulloch, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Kheri Forest Division, Oudh Circle, to hold charge of the Pilibhit Forest Division of the same circle, in addition to his own duties, during the absence on leave of Mr. W. Shakespear, or until further orders.

22nd July 1898.—No. $\frac{2538}{\text{II}-86\text{A}.}$ The following promotions and reversions in the Forest service are notified for general information :—

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Entry Number.	With effect from	Consequent on	Name-	From	To
1	19th April 1898.	Mr. E. McA. Moir's departure on furlough.	Mr. N. Hearle	Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st grade
			Mr. L. Mercer.	Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.
2	Ditto.	Mr. B. B. Osmaston's reversion to these Provinces.	Mr. A. P. Grenfell	Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, *Provisionally substantive.*	Assistant Conservator, 1st grade (seconded)
3	6th May 1898.	His appointment as Instructor at the Forest School, Debra Dun	Mr *A. M. F. Caccia.*	Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.
4	12th May 1898.	Mr. A. P. Grenfell's transfer from these Provinces.	Mr. J. C. Tulloch.	Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, *Provisionally substantive.*	Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, and officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.
5	18th May 1898.	Mr. N. Hearle's appointment as Officiating Conservator, 3rd Grade.	Mr. *F. B. Bryant*	Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade,	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.
			Mr. B. A. Rebsch.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.
			Mr. B. B Osmaston.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade
			Mr. W. H. Lovegrove.	Deputy Conservator, 4th grade. *Provisionally substantive.*	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.
			Mr. H. G. Billson	Assistant Conv., 1st grade *Provisionally substantive.*	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.
			Mr. W. A. R. Doxat.	Assistant Conservator, 2nd grade	Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st grade.

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6.—Punjab Gazette.

4th July 1898.—No. $\frac{271}{\text{A. L. No } 11}$—Mr. W. Mayes, Assistant Conservator of Forests, was transferred from Rawalpindi on the afternoon of the 9th May 1898, and was attached to the Hazara Division from that date to the afternoon of the 19th idem, when he took over charge of that Division from Mr. A. V. Monro, Deputy Conservator of Forests, proceeding on leave.

22nd July 1898.—No. $\frac{800}{\text{A. L. No. } 12}$—On return from privilege leave granted in *Punjab Government Gazette* Notification No. 245, dated 10th June 1898, Mr. A. V. Monro, Deputy Conservator of Forests, resumed charge of the Hazara Forest Division on the forenoon of the 5th July 1898, relieving Mr. W. Mayes, Assistant Conservator of Forests, transferred to the Rawalpindi Forest Division, to which he has been attached.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

9th May 1898.—No. 8.—Leave on medical certificate for seven months and twelve days, under Article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Ashraf Khan, Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, Permanent Establishment, Mandala Fores' Division, with effect from the 3rd December 1897.

12th May 1898. No. 11.—Leave on medical certificate for one month, under Article 369 of the Civil Service Reglations, is granted to Mr. J. F. Anthony, Ranger, 3rd grade, Permanent Establishment, Jubbulpore Forest Division, with effect from the 4th May 1898.

27th May 1898.—No. 1882.—Mr. A. M. F. Caccia, Deputy Conservator of Forests, reported his arrival in Bombay, per P. and O. S.S. "Britannia," on the afternoon of the 30th April last on return from the leave on medical certificate granted him.

2nd June 1898.—No. 1896.—Mr. A. St. V. Beechey, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Pranhita-Godavari Sub-Division, in the Chanda Forest Division, is transferred to the Sambalpur Forest Division, as Divisional Forest Officer.

3rd June 1898—No. 12.—With reference to Departmental Order No. 40, dated the 9th March 1898, Mr. Bapu Rao, Forest Ranger, 4th grade, Mandla Forest Division, having returned from privilege leave on the 9th May 1898, in the forenoon, the unexpired portion of his leave is hereby cancelled,

29th June 1898.—No. 13.—Privilege leave for one month, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. Chintaman Vishwanath Sarwate, Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Narsinghpur Forest Division, with effect from the 3rd August 1898.

29th June 1898.—No. 14.—Shiv Parshad, Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, Hoshangabad Forest Division, having returned, on the 24th June 1898, in the afternoon, from the leave on medical certificate granted him by Departmental Order No. 123, dated the 21st December 1897, the unexpired portion of the leave is hereby cancelled.

1st July 1898.—No. 62.—Privilege leave for 29 days, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. Faiz Bakhsh,

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Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Direction Division, with effect from the 4th July 1898.

6th July 1898.—No. 16.—In consequence of the death of Umed Ali, Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, Damoh Forest Division, Narayan Chunder Dutt, Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, sub *pro tem*, Betul Forest Division, is confirmed in that grade, with effect from the 19th June 1898.

16th July 1898.—No. 17.—Leave on medical certificate for two weeks, under Article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Ashraf Khan, Deputy Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Mandla Division, in continuation of the leave on medical certificate for seven months and twelve days granted him by Departmental Order No. 8, dated the 9th May 1898.

18th July 1898.—No. 18.—Mukat Behari Lal, Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, Mandla Forest Division, is reduced to Forester, 1st grade, with effect from the 1st March 1898.

26th July 1898.—No. 2639.—Privilege leave for three months, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. N. C. McLeod, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Bilaspur, with effect from the date on which he may be permitted to avail himself to it.

26th July 1898.—No. 2640.—Mr. Narayan Parshad Bajpai, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Raipur Forest Division, is transferred to the charge of the Bilaspur Forest Division, during the absence on privilege leave of Mr. N. C. McLeod, or until further orders.

28th July 1898.—No 2674.—Privilege leave for three months, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. H. E. Bartlett, Assistant Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Damoh Forest Division, with effect from the 1st August 1898, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

28th July 1898.—No. 2675.—Mr. R. S. Hole, Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Direction Division, Northern Circle, Jubbulpore, is appointed temporarily to hold charge of the Damoh Forest Division during the absence on leave of Mr. Bartlett, or until further orders.

8.—Burma Gazette.

23rd July 1898.—No. 6.—Pursuant to Revenue Department Notifications No. 141, dated the 27th May 1898, and No. 130, dated the 19th May 1898, Mr. G. F. R. Blackwell, Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of the Bassein-Myaungmya division on the forenoon of the 18th June 1898, by Mr. F. Ryan, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests.

27th July 1898.—No. 4.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 141, dated the 27th May 1898, Mr. F. Ryan, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. D. H. Allan Extra-Assistant Conservator, receved charge of the Kado sub-division, on the forenoon of the 11th June 1898.

27th July 1898.—No. 189 (Forests).—The following transfers are ordered in the Provincial Forest Department:—

Mr. R. L. Pocock, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, (attached to the Katha division), to the Shwegu sub-division of the Bhamo Forest division.

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6.—ASSAM GAZETTE.

Mr. C. W. B. Anderson, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, from the Shwegu sub-division of the Bhamo Forest division, to the Myadaung sub-division of the Katha Forest division.

Mr. E. B. Powell, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, from the Myadaung sub-division, of the Katha Forest division, to the Mandalay Depôt.

27*th July* 1898.—No, 115.—At the departmental examination held at Rangoon on the 6th June 1898, the following officers passed the examination in Burmese by the standards specified below :—

Higher Standard.

Mr. J. W. Ryan, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests.

Lower Standard.

Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. W. J. Dalton, Forest Ranger.
Mr. G. Cooper, Forest Ranger.
Mr. S. E. F. Jenkins, Forest Ranger.

28*th July* 1898.—No. 191 (FORESTS).—The following alterations in rank are ordered in the Forest Department—

(1) With effect from the 23rd March 1898, consequent on the return from furlough of Mr. H. C. Hill, Conservator of Forests :

Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

Mr. H. Jackson, Deputy Conservator, 3rd (officiating 2nd) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator, 4th (officiating 3rd) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

(2) With effect from the 2nd April 1898, consequent on the departure on furlough of Mr. A. Smythies, Conservator of Forests :

Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.

Mr. H. Jackson, Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.

Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

(3) With effect from the 6th April 1898, Mr. F. Linnell, Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, to be Deputy Conservator, 4th grade *(provisionally substantive)* :

Mr. W. F. Perree, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade (*provisionally substantive*), to be Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, and to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

So much of this department Notification No. 120 (Forests), dated the 11th May 1897, as relates to Mr. Linnell is hereby cancelled.

(4) With effect from the 12th May 1898, consequent on the return from privilege leave of Mr. J, Copeland, Deputy Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, Mr. H B. Anthony,

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Deputy Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade Mr. H. B Anthony, Deputy Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

Mr. G. F. S. Blackwell, Deputy Conservator, 3rd (officiating 2nd) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

Mr. A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade (*substantive provisionally*) officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

29th June 1898.—No. 8.—Mr. S. E. F. Jenkins, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, on transfer from the Man Range to the Gangaw sub-division of the Yaw Forest division, received charge of that sub-division on the forenoon of the 22nd June 1898.

4ht July 1898.—No. 5.—Mr. H. B. Anthony, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. A. Weston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Ataran division on the afternoon of the 24th June 1898.

4th July 1898.—No. 197.—Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred to the charge of the Shwegyin Forest division,

4th July 1898.—No. 198.—On relief by Mr. Ross, Mr. H. Calthrop, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is transferred to the charge of the Prome Forest division.

4th July 1898.—No. 199.—On the completion of the special duty on which he is employed in the Upper Chindwin division, Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to the Direction division, of the Western Circle.

4th July 1898.—No. 200.—On the completion of the special duty on which he is employed in the Upper Chindwin division, Mr. F. H. Todd, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the Yamethin sub-division of the Pyinmana Forest division.

4th July 1898.—No. 201.—On being relieved by Mr. Hodgson of the charge of the Upper Chindwin forest division, Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to do duty under the Conservator of Forests, Western Circle.

7th July 1898.—No. 7.—Pursuant to Revenue Department Notifications Nos. 181 and 182, dated the 16th June 1898, Mr. R. R. O'Hara, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests was relieved charge of the North Tharrawaddy sub-division by Mr. J. J. Rorie, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the afternoon of the 1st July 1898.

8th July 1898.—No. 8.—Mr. C. W. Allan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, availed himself on the 25th May 1898 of the furlough granted him in Revenue Department Notification No. 129, dated the 19th May 1898.

No. 223.—Maung Thakado, Extra-Assisstant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, on probation, is confirmed in his appointment with effect from the 1st July 1898.

19th July 1898—No 10.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 210, dated the 8th July 1898, Mr. E. M. Buchanan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over charge of the Myittha division to Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the afternoon of the 24th June 1898 and availed himself of the three months and 15 days' privilege leave with effect from the same date.

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No 11.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 211, dated the 8th July 1898, Messrs. G, E. S. Cubitt and C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservators of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of the Myittha division on the forenoon of the 6th July 1898.

22*nd July* 1898.—No. 229.—Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, was posted to the charge of the Myittha Forest division from the afternoon of the 24th June 1898, to the forenoon of the 6th July 1898.

No. 230.—Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred to the charge of the Yaw Forest division in place of Mr. Forteath, proceeding on leave.

No. 231.—Pending Mr. Doveton's arrival, Mr. F. H. Todd, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is appointed to the charge of the Yaw Forest division as a temporary measure.

No. 232—Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is appointed to the charge of the Myittha Forest division, *vice* Mr. Doveton, transferred.

25*th July* 1898.—No 233 (ERRATUM).—In this department Notification No. 228. dated the 22nd July 1898, *for* "Notification No. , dated the ," *read* " Notification No. 227, dated the 22nd July 1898."

No. 234.—Under the provisions of Articles 291 and 282 (i) of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for three months and 15 days is granted to Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he availed himself of it.

No. 235.—In supersession of this department Notification No. 210, dated the 8th July 1898, privilege leave for three months and 15 days is granted to Mr. E. M. Buchanan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, under section 282 of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the date on which he availed himself of it.

25*th July* 1898.—No. 9.—Pursuant to Revenue Department Notification No. 220, dated the 18th July 1898, Mr. A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of the Prome division on the afternoon of the 21st July 1898, by Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.

23rd *July* 1898.—No. 12.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 197 (Forests), dated the 4th July 1898, Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests, relinquished charge of his duties in the Upper Chindwin division on the forenoon of the 10th July 1898.

26*th July* 1898.—No. 150.—At the departmental examination held at Bassein, Akyab, Moulmein, Mergui, Minbu, Myingyan, Meiktila, Mandalay, Mogôk, Bhamo, Myitkyina, Mônywa, Kindat, Lashio, Taunggyi and Falam, on the 6th, 7th and 8th June 1898, the following officers passed in Burmese by the standards specified below :—

Higher Standard.

* * * * * *

Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests.

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Lower Standard.

Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator of Forests.
Mr. A. H M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. G. K. Parker, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. C. V. Ryan, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests.

27*th July* 1898.—No, 6.—Mr. H. Calthrop, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Shwegyin division on the afternoon of the 19th July 1898.

28*th July*, 1898,—No. 238,—Mr. T. W. Forster, Forest Ranger, 1st grade, is appointad to be an Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, with effect from the 1st July 1898. Mr. Forster will revert to his original place in the list of Extra-Assistant Conservators, *i. e.*, immediately below Mr. C. E. Allan, and above Maung Tha ka Do.

No 210.—Under the provisions of Article 282 (1) of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for three months and 15 days is granted to Mr. E. M. Buchanan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 15th July 1898, or any subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

No. 211.—Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is appointed to the charge of the Myittha Forest division in place of Mr. Buchanan, preceeding on leave.

12*th July* 1898.—No. 9.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 201, dated the 4th July 1898, Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, assumed charge of the special duty under the Conservator of Forests, Western Circle, on the afternoon of the 21st June 1898, and relinquished charge on the afternoon of the 30th June 1898.

16*th July* 1898.—No. 218.—Mr. C. L. Toussaint, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been permitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

18*th July* 1898.—No. 219.—Under the provisions of Article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, furlough for two years is granted to Mr. F. J. Branthwaite, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 1st August 1898, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

No. 220—Under the provisions of Articles 277, 291 and 282 (*i*) of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for three months and 15 days is granted to Mr. A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 21st July 1898, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

18*th July* 1898—No. 136—At the departmental examination held at Rangoon, Bassein, Moulmein, Myingyan, Meiktila, Mandalay, Myitkyina and Kindat, on the 6th and 7th June 1898, the following officers passed in the subjects specified below according to the standard prescribed for the examination of Forest Officers :—

Law.

Mr. F. H. Todd, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.

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Mr. Hatim Tai, Forest Ranger.
Mr. C. A. Clerk, Forest Ranger.

Revenue.

Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests—*with credit.*
Mr. G. K. Parker, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. F. H. Todd, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. E. B. Powell, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. C. V. Ryan, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. A. S. Rencontre, Forest Ranger.
Mr. P. E. Plunkett, Forest Ranger.
Mr, R. C. A Pinder, Forest Ranger.
Mr. W. J. Dalton, Forest Ranger.
Mr. G. Cooper, Forest Ranger.
Mr. Hatim Tai, Forest Ranger.
Mr. C. A. Clerk, Forest Ranger.

Procedure and Accounts.

Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. S. F. L. Cappel, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. F. H. Todd, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.
Mr. J. J. Rorie, Assistant Consevator of Forests,—*with credit.*
Mr, P. E. Plunkett, Forest Ranger.
Mr. Hatim Tai, Forest Ranger.
Mr. C. A. Clerk, Forest Ranger.

9.—Assam Gazette.

Nil.

10.—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

Nil

11—.Mysore Gazette.

24th June 1898.—No. 12141—*Ft. F.* 14-97.—Mr. K. Muttaiya Acting Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from the Kolar to the Mysore district for duty under the orders of the District Forest Officer. To join on the expiration of the leave granted in Notification No. 10698—Ft F. 14-97, dated 12th May 1898.

28th June 1898.—No. 12314—*Ft. F.* 62-95.—The four days' casual leave granted in Notification No. 10668—Ft. F. 62-95, dated 10th May 1898, to Mr. M. G. Rama Rao, Acting Assistant Conservator of Forests, Mysore district, is hereby extended by seven days, the whole period being treated as casual leave under Article 172 of the Mysore Service Regulations.

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30th June 1898.—No. 12436—*Ft. F.* 123-29.—Under Article 172 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. C. Appaiya, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Bangalore District, was granted casual leave of absence for a week from the 14th instant.

7th July 1898.—No. 176—*Ft. F.* 92-95.—Under Article 172 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. K. Shamaiengar, Acting Assistant Conservator of Forests, Chitaldrug District, is granted casual leave of absence for twelve days, with effect from 23rd July, 1898 or such other date as he may avail himself of the same.

7th July 1898.—No. 179—*Ft. F.* 92-95.—Under Article 172 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya, Assistant Conservator of Forests on special duty in the Kadur District, was granted casual leave of absence for fourteen days, from the 27th May, 1898.

12th July 1898.—No. 319—*Ft. F.* 104-93.—Under Article 172 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. S. A. Bapu Rao, Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, Hassan District, was granted casual leave of absence for seven days from the 2nd June, 1898.

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VIII—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1—Gazette of India.

17*th August* 1898.—No. 624-F.—Mr. Eardley-Wilmot, Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, in charge of the Oudh Forest Circle, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, is granted privilege leave for three months, under Articles 277 and 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the forenoon of the 8th August 1898. From the same date, and until further orders, Mr. N. Hearle, Officiating Conservator in charge of the Central Forest Circle, is placed in charge of the Oudh Forest Circle in addition to his own duties.

17*th August* 1898.—No. 626-F.—Mr. J. Nisbet, Officiating Conservator, 3rd grade, in charge of the Eastern Forest Circle, Upper Burma, is granted furlough for six months and sixteen days, under Article 340 (*b*) of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the afternoon of the 12th August 1898.

The following arrangements are made during Mr. Nisbet's absence, or until further orders:

(i) Lieutenant-Colonel C. T. Bingham, I. S. C., Conservator, in charge of the Tenasserim Forest Circle in Lower Burma, to hold charge of the Eastern Circle in Upper Burma.

(ii). Mr. F. B. Manson, Deputy Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, Bengal, is appointed to officiate as Conservator, 3rd grade, and to be in charge of the Tenasserim Circle, with effect from the afternoon of the 8th August 1898, when he relieved Colonel Bingham of the charge of that Circle.

25*th August* 1898.—No. 645-F.—On return from the privilege leave granted him in the notification of this Department, No. 418-F., dated the 26th May last, Mr. E. P. Dansey, Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, resumed charge of the Central Forest Circle, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, from Mr. N. Hearle, Officiating Conservator, in the forenoon of the 18th August 1898.

From the same date—

(*i*) Mr. S. Eardley-Wilmot, Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, on privilege leave, reverted to his substantive grade.

(*ii*) Mr. N. Hearle will continue to officiate as Conservator, 3rd grade, in charge of the Oudh Forest Circle, until further orders (*vide* notification of this Department No. 624-F., dated the 17th instant).

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2.—Madras Gazette.

29th July 1898.—*Promotions.*—The following promotions are ordered in the Rangers' Class of the Southern Circle with effect from 1st April 1898 :—

Name.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.
R. Soondram Pillai ...	Ranger, 3rd grade	Ranger, 2nd grade	Permanent.
E. C. M. Mascurenhas ...	Do. 4th do.	Do. 3rd do.	Do.
K. Saiyid Edulla Sahib ...	Do. 6th do.	Do. 5th do	Do.

30th August 1898.—*Cancellation of leave.*—This office service order No. 198 of 1897-98 granting two months' privilege leave to S. Eggianarayana Sustry, Ranger, Bellary district, is cancelled,

5th August 1898.—*Department Test.*—The following subordinates have passed the Departmental Test held in July 1898, in the subjects noted against each :—

H. Rama Row, Forester ... { Forest Code and Accounts, Forest Act and Rules.

S. A. Govindaraju Mudaliar, Temporary Deputy Ranger ... { Forest Act and Rules.

5th August 1898.—No. 354. -Posting.

No.	Name and designation of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
1	Mr. C. F. C. Fischer, Acting Assistant Conservator of Forests, First grade.	Ganjam ...	Acting District Forest Officer.	*Vice* Mr. O' Leary. To act unti further orders,

6th August 1898.—*Promotions.*—The acting promotions of the following men ordered in this office service order No. 183 of 1897-98 are declared by the Board of Revenue as permanent with effect from 1st April 1898 :

(1) P. Aanada Row.
(2) V. Kalyanarama Iyer.
(3) L. Hanumanthulu.

9th August 1898.—No. 365.—Mr. A. W. C. Stanbrough, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been granted by the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for India three months' furlough in continuation of the leave notified at page 312 of Part I of the *Fort St George Gazette*, dated 16th March 1897.

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12th August 1898.—No. 366.—

No.	Name and designation of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, &c.,
1	Mr. J. S. Scot, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Cuddaph.	Assistant Conservator of Forests 2nd grade.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade.	Acting ...	*Vice* Mr. H. F. A. Wood acting as Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade. To take effect from 1st February 1898.

Departmental Test.—The following subordinates have passed the Departmental Test, in the parts noted against each, of section 69 of the Revised Code, at the examination held in July 1898 :—

District.	Name and designation.	In Part (*a*) or (*b*)	Remarks
North Coimbatore ...	A. Devanatha Chari Probationary Forester, III.	Parts (*a*) & (*b*)	Good.
Madura ...	.. M. Ponnuswami Pilai, Forester, II.	Part (*a*)	Good.

Coimbatore, 22nd August 1898.

Privilege leave.—Mr. W. P. Rego, Ranger, South Malabar, is permitted to avail himself of the three months' privilege leave granted to him (*vide Fort St. George Gazette* dated 26th July 1898, page 1004), from 1st September 1898.

Leave.—The Board of Revenue has granted, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for one month to Mr. P. M. Lushington, District Forest Officer, North Coimbatore Division, to commence from or after 1st September next.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

3rd August 1898.—No. 4987.—Mr. H. Murray, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, has been allowed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

No. 4989.—Mr. W. A. Wallinger, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, has been allowed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

12th August 1898.—No. 1119.—Messrs. A. G. Edie, I. F. S., and W. F. D. Fisher, I. F. S., respectively delivered over and received charge of the Working Plans Divisional Forest Office. N. C., in the forenoon of the 12th August 1898.

16th August 1898.—No. 1143.—Messrs. J. Dodgson, I. F. S, and A. G. Edie, I. F. S., respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Central Thána, in the afternoon of the 12th August 1898.

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17*th August* 1898.—No. 1168.—Messrs. J. Dodgson, I. F. S., and W. F. D. Fisher, I. F. S., respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, South Thána, in the afternoon of the 12th August 1898.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

18*th August* 1898.—No. 2764.—The services of Mr. F. B. Manson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, are placed at the disposal of the Government of India.

18*th August* 1898—No, 2765.—Mr. F. Trafford, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Direction Division, and Personal Assistant to the Conservator of Forests, is temporarily transferred to the charge of the Darjeeling Divison, but will continue to hold charge of the Direction Division, till further orders.

5.—N-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

15*th August* 1898.—No. $\frac{2763}{\text{II } 535 \text{ B.}}$ —Babu Raghu Nath Pathak, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the, Direction Division, Oudh Forest Circle, as Working Plans Officer, to be attached to the Kheri Forest Division of the same Circle.

24*th August* 1898—No. $\frac{2909}{\text{II } 305 \text{ O.}}$ —Mr. E. L. Haslett, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Naini Tal Forest Division of the Central Circle, privilege leave for six weeks, with effect from the 1st September 1898.

6.—Punjab Gazette.

8*th August* 1898.—No. $\frac{818}{\text{A. L. No. 13}}$.—*Leave.*—Mr. R. J. P. Pinder, Deputy Conservator of Forests, attached to the Bashahr Forest Division, is granted one month's privilege leave, with effect from the afternoon of the 13th June 1898.

17*th August* 1898.—No. $\frac{827}{\text{A. L. No. 13}}$.—The following changes have taken place in the list of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces with effect from the date specified against each :—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from.	Remarks.
Mr. A. St. V. Beechey ...	Assistant Conservator, 1st.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.	21st March 1898.	Consequent on the transfer of Mr. F. Linnell to Burmah.
Mr. C. M. McCrie	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st.	Assistant Conservator. 1st		
Mr. W. Mayes	Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st.	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st.		

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Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	With effect from.	Remarks.
Mr. C.M. McCrie	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.	Assistant Conservator, 1st.	6th May 1898.	Consequent on the return of Mr. A. M. F. Caccia from privilege leave.
Mr. E. M. Coventry ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4rh.	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th.	6th May 1898.	Consequent on the temporary transfer of Mr. A. M. F. Caccia to North-Western Provinces.
Mr. C.M. McCrie	Assistant Conservator, 1st.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.		
Mr. S. L. Kenny	Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st.	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st.		
Mr. W. Mayes	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.	21st May 1898.	Consequent on the departure of Mr. A. W. Blunt on privilege leave.
Mr. A. E. Lowrie	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 3rd.	Deputy Conservator, 3rd.	24th May 1898.	Consequent on the retirement of Mr. F. C. Hicks from the service.
Mr. G. S. Hart	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd.	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 3rd.		
Mr. C. Somers Smith ...	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th.	Deputy Conservator, 4th		
Mr. E. M. Coventry ...	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd.		
Mr. R. M. Williamson ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th.		
Mr. W. Mayes ...	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st, and Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.	Assistant Conservator, 1st, and Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.		
Mr. S. L. Kenny	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th.		

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Nrme.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted.	Wilh effect from.	Remarks.
Mr. R. M. Williamson ...	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd.	19th June 1898.	Consequent on the departure of M. A. V. Monro on privilege leave.
Mr. R. M. Williamson ...	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd.	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th.	5th July 1898.	Consequent on the return of Mr. A. V. Monro from privilege leave.

22*nd August* 1898.—No. $\frac{343}{\text{A L. No. 16}}$.—In Notification No. 204 dated 7th May 1898, opposite the remarks "consequent on Mr. W. P. Thomas, officiating as Conservator, *vice* Mr. C. Bagshawe, on one year's furlough," read Mr. C. McCrie instead of Mr. A. St. V. Beechey.

22*nd August* 1898.—No. $\frac{347}{\text{A. L. No. 16}}$ Mr. A. E. Bartlett having passed all subjects prescribed by Section 72 of the Forest Department Code, is promoted to Provisional Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade, wth effect from the 30th May 1898, the date on which he completed his examinations,

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

25*th July* 1898.—No. 19.—Privilege leave for one month, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Gauri Shankar, Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Nimar Division, with effect from the 1st August 1898.

3*rd August* 1898.—No. 20—Privilege leave for one month, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations; is granted to Raghunath Parshad, Deputy Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Jubbulpore Division, with effect from the 1st August 1898, or such subsequent date as he may be permitted to avail himself of it.

4*th August* 1898.—No. 3.—Under the authority conferred by Section 29, Clause (2) *a*, of the Forest Department Code, and with the Chief Commissioner's previous sanction, Sarmast Khan, Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, at present attached to the Nagpur-Wardha Forest Division, is promoted as a Ranger of the 6th grade on Rs. 50 per mensem with effect from the 1st August 1898.

4*th August* 1898.—No. 4.—The following changes will take place in the list of Rangers, in the Central Provinces, with effect from the 20th July 1898, consequent on the retirement from the service of Mr. Muhammad Suleman, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade :—

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Mr. Gauri Shankar, Forest Ranger. 3rd grade (sub. *pro. tem.*), to be Forest Ranger 3rd grade (substantive), *vice* Mr. Muhammad Suleman, retired.

Mr. N. C. Chatterji, Forest Ranger, 4th grade. (sub. *pro. tem.*), *vice* Mr. Gauri Shankar, confirmed in that grade.

Mr. Matadin Dube, Forest Ranger, 4th grade (sub. *pro. tem.*), to be Forest Ranger, 4th grade (substantive).

Mr. W. G. Slaney, Forest Ranger, 5th grade, to be Forest Ranger, 4th grade, (sub. *pro. tem.*), *vice* Mr. N. C. Chatterji.

Mr. Y. M. Vadikar, Forest Ranger, 5th Grade (sub. *pro. tem.*) to be Forest Ranger, 5th grade (substantive). *vice*, Mr. Matadin Dube, confirmed in the 4th grade.

9th August 1898—No 22—The following transfers are made:—

Ilahidad Khan, Officiating Ranger, 6th grade, from the Murwara Range, Jubbulpore Division, to the Narsinghpur Division.

Govind Rao Sapre, Ranger, 6th grade, from the Direction Division, to the charge of the Murwara Range, Jubbulpore Division, *vice* Ilahidad Khan.

12th August 1898—No 2814—Order No 26939, dated the 26th July. 1898, granting Mr. N. C. McLeod, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, Bilaspur, three months' privilege leave, is hereby cancelled.

8.—Burma Gazette.

28th July 1898.—No. 242.—Mr. W. A. Hearsey, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, is promoted to Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade, with effect from the 1st July 1898.

29th July 1898.—No. 243.—The Lieutenant-Governor directs that the Magwe Forest division, which was created by this department Notification No. 311, dated the 16th July 1896, shall be abolished with effect from the 1st August 1898, and that it shall in future constitute a subdivision of the Minbu Forest division.

30th July 1898.—No. 244.—Mr. W. A. Hearsey, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Kyaukse to the charge of the South Tenasserim Forest division.

30th July 1898.—No. 245.—Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Mandalay to the charge of the Kyaukse subdivision.

2nd August 1898.—No. 13.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 231 (Forests), dated the 22nd July 1898, Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over charge of the Yaw division to Mr. F. H. Todd, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the forenoon of the 19th July 1898, and availed himself of the three months and 15 days' privilege leave, with effect from the same date.

2nd August 1898.—No. 10.—Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of the Prome division on the afternoon of the 26th July 1898, by Mr. H. C. Calthrop, Deputy Conservator of Forests.

3rd August 1898.—No. 251.—Mr C. L. Toussaint has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India an extension of furlough for 20 days.

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3rd August 1898.—No. 252.—Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred temporarily from Allanmyo subdivision to the charge of the Tharrawaddy forest division *vice* Mr. Corbett, proceeding on leave.

3rd August 1898.—No. 253.—Under the provisions of Articles 277 and 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for two months and 15 days is granted to Mr. G. Q. Corbett, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he may avail himself of it.

Mr. Corbett is permitted to overstay his leave by six days under Article 282 (*ii*) of the Civil Service Regulations.

4th August 1898.—No. 14.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 199 (Forests), dated the 4th July 1898, Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests, relinquished charge of his duties in the Upper Chindwin division on the forenoon of the 10th July 1898, and assumed charge of his duties in the Direction Division, Western Circle, on the afternoon of the 19th July 1898.

5th August 1898.—No. 11.—On return from the privilege leave granted in Revenue Department Notifications Nos. 181 and 182, dated the 16th June 1898, Mr. R. R. O'Hara, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, resumed charge of the North Tharrawaddy subdivision from Mr. J. J. Rorie, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the forenoon of the 2nd August 1898.

5th August 1898.—No. 15.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification Fo. 232, dated the 22nd July 1898, Messrs. C. W. Doveton and G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservators of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of the Myittha division on the forenoon of the 30th July 1898.

5th August 1898.—No. 257.—Under the provisions of Articles 277,291 and 282 (*i*) of the Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for three months and 15 days is granted to Mr. G. R. Long, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he may avail himself of it.

No. 258.—Mr. A. Weston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is appointed temporarily to the charge of the West Salween Forest Division, in addition to his other duties during the absence of Mr. G. R. Long on privilege leave or until further orders.

No. 259.—Pending the arrival of Mr. H. Calthrop, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is a appointed to hold charge of the Prome Forest division as a temporary measure.

11th August 1898.—No. 12.—Pursuant to Revenue Department Notification No. 253, dated 3rd Augnst 1898, Mr. G. Q. Corbett, Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of the Tharrawaddy division on the afternoon of the 10th August 1898 by Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.

11th August 1898.—No. 16.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 230 (Forests), dated the 22nd July 1898, Messrs. F. H. Todd and C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservators of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of, the Yaw division on the forenoon of the 9th August 1898.

11th August 1898.—No. 17.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 245, dated the 30th July 1898, Mr. R. S. Troup,

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Assistant Conservator of Forests, relinquished charge of his duties in the Direction division, Western circle, in the forenoon of the 11th August 1828.

12*th August* 1898.—No. 7.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 219 (Forests), dated the 18th July 1898, Mr. F. J. Branthwaite, Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of the Working Plans Division on the aftorenoon of the 10th August 1898.

15*th August* 1898.—No. 274 (Forests).—Mr. C. V. Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, on probation, is confirmed in his appointment with effect from the 6th June 1898.

16*th August* 1898.—No. 277 (Forests).—Messrs. E. B. Powell and D. H. Allan are promoted from the 4th to the 3rd grade of Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests.

15*th August* 1898.—No. 14.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 189 (Forests), dated the 27th June 1898, Mr. R. Pocock, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, relinquished charge of his duties in the Katha division on the forenoon of the 10th July 1898 and received charge of the Shwegu subdivision from Mr. C. B. W. Anderson, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the afternoon of the 12th idem.

15*th August* 1898,—No. 15.—Mr. E. B. Powell, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. C. B. W. Anderson Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, received, charge of. the Myadaung subdivision, Tigyaing. on the afternoon of the 20th July 1898.

15*th August* 1898 —No. 16.—Mr. A. S. Rencontre, Ranger, made over, and Mr. E. B. Powell, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Revenue subdivision, of the Mandalay Forest division, on the afternoon of the 6th instant.

15*th August* 1898.—No. 17.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 202 (Forests), dated the 4th July 1898. Mr. T. W. Forster, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. F. H. Todd, Assistant Conservator of Forests, received charge of the Yamèthin subdivision, Pyinmana division, on the afternoon of the 12th instant.

19*th August* 1898,—No. 8.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 258, dated the 5th August 1898. Mr. G. R. Long, Deputy Conservator of Forests,, made over, and Mr. A, Weston, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the West Salween division on the afternoon of the 17th August 1898.

19*th August* 1898.—No. 280.—Under the provisions of Articles 277 and 291 of the Civil Service Regulations privilege leave for one month is granted to Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, with effect from the date on which he may avail himself of it.

19*th August* 1898.—No. 281.—Mr. G. K. Parker, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is appointed to the charge of the Upper Chindwin Forest division during the absence of Mr. Hodgson on leave or until further orders.

24*th August* 1898.—No. 282.—Mr. E. B. Powell, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, was on duty in the Mandalay Forest division from the 25th July to the 5th August 1898.

25*th August* 1898.—No. 283.—Under the provision of Articles 277 and 291 of the Civil Service Regulations privilege leave for two months

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is granted to Mr. C. V, Ryan, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 1st September 1898, or the subsequent date on which he may avail himself of it.

9.—Assam Gazette.

17th August 1898.—No. 6271G.—Babu Tara Kisor Gupta Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, in temporary charge of the Cachar Forest Division, on being relieved by Mr. H. S. Ker-Edie Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, is re-transferred to Nowgong and placed in charge of the Nowgong Forest Division.

10.—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

29th July 1898.—No. 248.—Mr. W. G. J. Peake, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, has, on his return from the privilege leave granted him in *Residency Orders* Notification No. 64, dated the 26th March 1898, been temporarily posted to the Direction Forest Division.

2nd August 1898,—*Residency Orders* Notification No. 226, dated the 11th July 1898, granting three months' furlough to Mr. L. K. Martin, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, and Divisional Forest Officer, Akola, and placing Mr. W. G. J. Peake, Extra Assistant Conservator, in temporary charge of the Akola Division during Mr. Martin's absence on furlough, in hereby cancelled.

13th August 1898.—No. 268.—Mr. S. L. Kenny, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, in charge of the Kohana Sub-division in the Ellichpur Forest Division, is granted privilege leave for three months, with effect from the 25th August 1898, or from such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

11.—Mysore Gazette.

8th August 1898.—No. 1073.—Ft. F. 119-95.—The one month and twenty days' privilege leave of absence granted to Mr. H. Muthappa, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Bangalore district, in Government Notification No. 11,228—Ft. F. 119-95, dated the 28th May 1898, is hereby extended by five days, Mr. C. Appaiya, B. A., Assistant Conservator of Forests, continuing to act as District Forest Officer, Bangalore.

15th August 1898.—No. 1263—Ft. F. 1-95.—Under Article 171 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. A. G. R. Theobald, Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Mysore district, is granted casual leave of absence for three days, with effect from the 5th August 1898 or such other date as he may avail himself of the same.

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UNIV. OF CALIFORNIA

VIII.—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1—Gazette of India.

Nil.

2.—Madras Gazette.

2nd September, 1898.—*No.* 896.—Appointment.

Number.	Name and designation of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remarks showing cause of vacancy, etc.
1	Mr. P. M. Lushington.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Second Grade.	Acting	During the absence of Mr. J. S. Battie on privilege leave.
2	Mr. H. F. Arbuthnot.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, Second Grade, and Acting in the First Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.	Do.	
3	Mr. H. J. A. Porter.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and Acting in the First Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, First Grade.	Do.	During the employment of Mr. H. A. Gass, as Acting Conservator of Forests, or until further orders.
4	Mr. J. S. Battie	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and Acting in the Second Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Second Grade.	Do.	
5	Mr. F. Foulkes	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, and Acting in the Third Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade.	Do.	
6	Mr. H. Tireman	Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, and Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.	Do.	

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Number.	Name and designation of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion.	Remark swhowing cause of vacancy, etc.
7	Mr. A. W. Lushington.	Deputy Conservator of Forests; Third Grade, and Acting in the First Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, First Grade.	Do.	During the absence of Mr. C. E. Brasier on special leave, or until further orders.
8	Mr. E. R. Murray.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and Acting in the Second Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Second Grade.	Do.	
9	Mr. F. C. L. Cowley-Brown.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade.	Do.	
10	Mr. C. E. C. Fischer.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, Second Grade, and Acting in the First Grade.	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.	Do.	

Note.--Messrs. C. E. C. Fischer and H. F. Arbuthnot will draw acting allowance as Deputy Conservators of Forests, Fourth Grade, from 5th July 1898.

No. 897.—His Excellency the Governor in Counncil is pleased to order the following transfer :—

No.	Name of officer.	From.	To.	Remarks.
1	Mr. C. B. Dawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade.	Southern Circle.	Northern Circle.	To do duty under the orders of the Conservator.

2nd September, 1898.—*No.* 898.—Posting.

No.	Name of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
1	Mr. H. F. Arbuthnot, Acting Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	Salem.	Acting District Forest Officer.	Until further orders.

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3rd September 1898.—*Promotions.*—The following acting promotions are ordered with effect from 1st September 1898. subject to the conditions that (1) the officers so promoted shall revert to the Deputy Ranger's Class when qualified men become available to take their places, and (2) they shall cease to draw pay as Rangers if they are not actually holding range charge or are deputed for training to the Forest School :—

Name.	Present appointment.	Appointment to which promoted.
M. Ponnuranga Mudaliar	Deputy Ranger, 2nd Grade	Forest Ranger, 6th Grade (sub. *pro tem.*).
S. Vasudeva Reddi ...	Do. 3rd do.	Forest Ranger, 6th Grade (sub. *pro tem.*).
Mahomed Abdul Hakim Sahib.	Do. 3rd do.	Forest Ranger, 6th Grado (sub. *pro tem.*).

12th September 1898.—*Privilege leave.*—To M. R. Ry. A. N. Venkatachalam Chetty, Ranger, Sixth Grade, Trichinopoly, for one month under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations from date of relief.

13th September 1898.—*Leave.*—Mr. C. P. Howell, Ranger, First Grade, South Coimbatore Division, is granted leave on medical certificate, under article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, for six months from date of relief.

13th September 1898. *Transfer.*—Mr. L. S. Janes, sub. *pro tem.* Ranger, Sixth Grade, is transferred from Madura to South Coimbatore. To join at once.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

7th September 1898.—No. 5742.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments :—

Mr. W. A. Talbot to act as Deputy Conservator of Forests, First Grade, in the chain of vacancies consequent on Mr. Wroughton's proceeding on furlough, with effect from the date on which Mr. Shuttleworth was allowed privilege leave for three months.

Mr. G K. Betham to act as Deputy Conservator of Forests, First Grade, from the same date in the arrangements consequent on Mr. Shuttleworth's leave.

8th September 1898.—No. 5782.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. W. A. Wallinger, on return to duty, to be Divisional Forest Officer, Panch Mahâls.

14th September 1898.—No. 5914.—His Excellency the Governor n Council is pleased to make the following promotions : —

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Mr. W. R. Woodrow to be Second Grade Deputy Conservator of Forests, vice Mr. C. Greatheed, resigned.

Mr. G. M. Ryan to be Third Grade Deputy Conservator of Forests, vice W. R. Woodrow.

Mr. W. F. D. Fisher to be Fourth Grade Deputy Conservator of Forests, vice Mr. G. M. Ryan, and to rank next above Mr. O. H. L. Napier.

Mr. A. G. Edie to be First Grade Assistant Conservator of Forests, vice Mr. W. F. D. Fisher.

24*th September* 1898.—No. 6127.—Mr. G. M. Ryan, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, has been allowed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India an extension of furlough for twenty-four days.

No. 6129.—Mr. G. M. Ryan, Deputy Conservator of Forets, Fourth Grade, has been allowed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

14*th September* 1898.—No. 3226.—Messrs. W. R. Govande, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, and S. Hornidge, Deputy Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Sholapur Forest Division, on the forenoon of the 19th September 1898.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

12*th September* 1898.—No. 3110.—Consequent on the transfer of Mr. F. B. Manson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd (and officiating 1st) Grade, to Burma, the following promotions are ordered with effect from the 2nd August 1898 :—

Mr. C. G. D. Fordyce, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 2nd grade, to officiate in the 1st Grade of Deputy Conservators.

Mr. R. L. Heinig, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, and officiating 3rd grade to officiate in the 2nd grade of Deputy Conservators.

Mr. H. H. Haines, F. C. H. Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade to officiate in the 3rd grade of Deputy Conservators.

Mr. E. P. Stebbing, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd (and officiating 1st) grade, to officiate in the 4th grade of Deputy Conservators.

5.—N-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

6*th September* 1898.—No. $\frac{3100}{11\text{-}378\ C}$. Mr. R. C. Milward, Assistant Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Dehra Dun Forest Division, School Circle, privilege leave for one month with effect from the 15th September 1898.

6*th September* 1898.—No. $\frac{3101}{11\text{-}378\ C}$.—Babu Karuna Nidhan Mukerjie, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Saharanpur Forest Division, School Circle, to hold charge of the Dehra Dun Forest Division, in addition to his other duties during the absence on leave of Mr. R. C. Milward.

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5th September 1898.—No. $\frac{3087}{\text{II-86 A}}$. The following temporary promotions and reversions in the Forest service are notified for general information:—

Entry No.	With effect from	Consequent on	Name.	From.	To.
1	28th July 1898.	Mr. H. G. Billson's departure on privilege leave	Mr. R. C. Milward	Officiating Assistant Conservator, 1st grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.
2	18th August 1898.	Mr. W. Shakespear's departure on privilege leave.	Mr. L. Mercer	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.
			,, *A. F. M. Caccia*	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.
			,, P. H. Clutterbuck		
			Mr. F. A Leete	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.
			Mr. F. F. R. Channer	Officiating Asst. Conservator, 1st grade.	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

6.—PUNJAB GAZETTE.

1st September 1898.—No. $\frac{360}{\text{A. L. No. 17}}$.—*Leave.*—The 18 months' furlough granted to Mr. C. P. Fisher, Deputy Conservator of Forests, in Punjab Government Notification No. 34, dated the 16th of January 1897, has been extended by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India by a period of three months.

5th September 1898.—No. 369.—*Leave.*—Lála Sundar Dás, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to Lahore Forest Division, obtained twenty days' privilege leave from the forenoon of the 14th July 1898, to the afternoon of the 2nd August 1898.

23rd September 1898.—No. $\frac{388}{\text{A. L. No. 18}}$.—The following changes have taken place in the list of Forest Officers in the Associated Provinces with effect from the dates specified against each :—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted or reverted	With effect from	Remarks.
Mr. E. M. Coventry	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.	Provisional Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.	25th July 1898.	Consequent on the return of Mr. A. W. Blunt from privilege leave
Mr. S. L. Kenny	Officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.	Provisional Assistant Conservator, 1st grade.	Do.	

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23*rd September* 1898.—No. $\frac{392}{A.\ L.\ No.\ 19}$.—*Addendum.*—To Notification No. $\frac{327}{A.\ L.\ No.\ 14}$, dated 17th August 1898, add, Mr. A. W Blunt is promoted from Deputy Conservator, 4th Grade, to Officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd Grade, with effect from 24th May 1898, consequent on the retirement of Mr. F. C. Hicks from the service.

7.—CENTRAL PROVINCES GAZETTE.

4th August 1898.—No. I.—In consequence of the reorganization of the Subordinate Forest Establishment sanctioned by the Government of India in their letter No. 101-276—12-F., of the 25th January 1897, the following promotions among Forest Rangers are ordered with effect from the 1st March 1898 :—

Name.	Grade.		Circle.	Nature of promotion and other remarks.
	From.	To.		
	Rs.	Rs.		
Mr. B. I. Sham Rao	1st Grade on 150 (sub. *pro tem.*)	1st Grade on 150	Southern Circle	Substantive.
,, A. Hunt ...	2nd Grade on 125	Do ,, 150	Do do	Do (seconded)
,, A. Ponnusami	Do ,, ,, 125	Do ,, 150	Do do	Sub. *pro tem.*
,, S. R. Parsons	Do ,, ,, 125	Do ,, 150	Northern do	Do
,, Faiz Bakhsh ...	Do ,, ,, 125 (sub. *pro tem.*)	2nd ,, 125	Do do	Substantive.
,, F.W. Wightman	3rd Grade on 100	Do ,, 125	Southern do	Do
,, Amrit Lal Chatterji ...	2nd ,, ,, 125 (sub. *pro tem.*)	Do ,, 125	Northern do	Do
,, D. N. Avasia	3rd Grade on 100	Do ,, 125	Southern do	Sub. *pro tem.*
,, J. F. Anthony	Do ,, ,, 100	Do ,, 125	Northern do	Do
,, J. D. St. Joseph	Do ,, ,, 100 (sub. *pro tem.*)	3rd ,, 100	Do do	Substantive (seconded.)
,, Bhagwant Narian Deshpande	Do ,, ,, 100 (sub. *pro tem.*)	Do ,, 100	Do do	Do
,, R. H. Cole ...	4th Grade on 80	Do ,, 100	Do do	Do
,, K. Sama Rao ..	Do ,, ,, 80	Do ,, 100	Southern do	Sub. *pro tem.*
,, Gouri Shankar	Do ,, ,, 80	Do ,, 100	Northern do	Do
,, F. J. Langhorne	Do ,, ,, 80	Do ,, 100	Southern do	Do
,, Vinayak Chimnaji ...	Do ,, ,, 80 (sub. *pro tem.*	4th ,, 80	Northern do	Substantive.
,, E. A. Rooke ...	Do ,, ,, 80 (sub. *pro tem.*)	Do ,, 80	Southern do	Do
,, Madho Rao ...	5th ,, ,, 60	Do ,, 80	Do do	Do
,, Chintaman Vishwanath ...	Do ,, ,, 60	Do ,, 80	Northern do	Sub. *pro tem.*
,, Jairam Raghunath ...	Do ,, ,, 60	Do ,, 80	Do do	Do
,, Matadin Dubi	Do ,, ,, 60	Do ,, 80	Southern do	Do
,, D. G. Vishwanath ...	Do ,, ,, 60 (sub. *pro tem.*)	5th ,, 60	Do do	Substantive.
,, Moreshwar Rao	6th ,, ,, 50	Do ,, 60	Do do	Do
,, Dhondu Narain	Do ,, ,, 50	Do ,, 60	Northern do	Do
,, Thakur Parshad	Do ,, ,, 50	Do ,, 60	Do do	Sub. *pro tem.*
,, Y. M. Vadikar	Do ,, ,, 50	Do ,, 60	Southern do	Do

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The following changes have taken place in the list of Rangers in the Central Provinces, with effect from the 1st April 1898, consequent on the resignation of Mr. Chhoga Lal, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade .—

Mr. K. Rama Rao, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, (sub. *pro tem.*), to be Forest Ranger, 3rd grade (substantive).

Mr. R. N. Thompson, Forest Ranger, 4th grade, to be Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, (sub. *pro tem*).

Mr. Chintaman Vishwanath, Forest Ranger, 4th grade, (sub. *pro tem.*), to be Forest Ranger, 4th grade (substantive).

Mr. Ganeshyam Parshad, Forest Ranger, 5th grade to be Forest Ranger, 4th grade (sub. *pro tem.*)

Mr. Thakur Parshad, Forest Ranger, 5th grade (sub. *pro tem.*), to be Forest Ranger, 5th grade (substantive).

4th August 1898.—No. 21.—With the previous sanction of the Chief Commissioner, Surendranath Chatterji, Forest Ranger, attached to the Betul Forest Division, is reduced from the 5th to the 6th grade, with effect from the 26th July 1898.

15th August 1898.—No. 23.—Leave without pay for 9 days, under Article 372 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Dhondu Narayan Deshpande, Ranger, 6th grade, Permanent Establishment, Hoshangabad Division, with effect from the 15th to the 23rd June 1898, both dates inclusive,

16th August 1898.—No. 24.—Privilege leave for two months, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. D. Rozario, Deputy Ranger, 1st Grade, Permanent Establishment, Nimar Division, with effect from the 20th August 1898, or such subsequent date as he may be permitted to avail himself of it.

17th August 1898.—No. 25.—Leave on medical certificate for one day, under Article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Ashraf Khan, Deputy Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Mandla Division, in continuation of the leave on medical certificate granted him by Departmental Orders Nos. 8 and 17, dated the 9th May and the 16th July 1898, respectively.

29th August 1898.—No. 26.—Privilege leave for two months, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Waman Rao, Deputy Ranger, Permanent Establishmeut, Nimar Division, with effect from the 1st September 1898, or such subsequent date as he may be permitted to avail himself of it.

7th September 1898.—No. 27.—Under the authority of Notification No. 3555, dated the 12th June 1890, the following Forest Rangers are invested with the powers described in Section 67 of Act VII of 1878 (as modified up to the 31st December 1894) :—

Mr. R. H. Cole, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade,

Mr. Gauri Shankar, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade.

Mr. R. N. Thompson, Forest Ranger, 3rd grade, sub. *pro tem.*

8th September 1897.—No 4057.—Consequent on the retirement of Mr. Ahmad Ali, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Berar, the Chief Commissioner is pleased to promote Mr. R. C. Thompson, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, to be Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd grade, with effect from the 15th January 1897.

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[This promotion is subject to the condition that Mr. Thompson passes the examination in Vernacular by the HigherStandard in October next.]

21*st September* 1898.—No. 28.—Leave without pay for one month, under Article 372 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Rajendra Lal Shaw, Naib-Daroga, Temporary Establishment, Jubbulpore Forest Division, in continuation of the six months' leave without pay granted him by Departmental Order No. 2, dated the 14th April 1898.

22*nd September* 1898.—No. 29.—Privilege leave for one month, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Puttu Lal, Deputy Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Narsinghpur Forest Division, with effect from the 9th September 1898.

22*nd Sepmteber* 1898.—No. 30.—On return from the privilege leave granted him by Departmental Order No. 24, dated the 16th August 1898, M. DeRozario, Deputy Ranger, is posted to the Hoshangabad Forest Division.

22*nd September* 1898.—No. 31.—On return from the privilege leave granted him by Departmental Order No. 29, dated the 23rd September 1898, Puttu Lal, Deputy Ranger, is posted to the Nimar Forest Division, *vice* M. DeRozario.

24*th September* 1898.—No. 32.—The one month's leave without pay granted by Departmental Order No. 28, dated the 21st September 1898, to Rajendra Lal Shaw, Naib-Daroga, Temporary Establishment Jubbulpore Forest Division, in continuation of the six months' leave without pay previously granted him, is hereby extended to two months.

8.—Burma Gazette.

23*rd August* 1898.—No. 18.—With reference to Revenue Department Notifications Nos 244 and 245 (Forests), dated the 30th July 1898, Mr. W. A. Hearsey, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. R. S. Troup, Assistant Conservator of Forests, received, charge of the Kyauksè subdivision of the Mandalay division on the forenoon of the 16th instant.

27*th August* 1898—No. 284.—The following alterations in rank are ordered in the Forest Department :—

(1) With effect from the 6th June 1898.

Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator, 2nd grade, to be Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, and to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

Mr. A. E. Ross, Assistant Conservator, 2nd grade, to be Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, and officiate as Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator, 2nd grade, to be Assistant Conservator, 1st grade, and to officiate as Deputy Conservator 4th grade.

(2) With effect from the 25th June 1898, consequent on the return from furlough of Mr. A. Weston, Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade:

Mr. A. Weston, Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 1st grade.

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Mr. J. Copeland, Deputy Conservator, 2nd (officiating 1st) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

Mr. H. Jackson, Deputy Conservator, 3rd (officiating 2nd) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator, 4th (officiating 3rd) grade, to revert to his substantive appointment.

30*th August* 1898.—No. 13.—With the sanction of the Local Government, the following promotions and appointments of Forest Rangers in the Pegu Circle are ordered with effect from the 21st April 1898.

Mr. Hatim Tai, Forest Ranger, Rangoon Division, from the 5th to the 3rd grade.

Maung Aung Ban and Mr. C. A. Clerk, who have obtained the higher standard certificate at the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, are appointed Forest Rangers, 3rd grade.

30*th August* 1898.—No. 19.—Mr. W. R. French, Forest Ranger, made over, and Mr. A. S. Rencontre, Forest Ranger, received, charge of the Mogaung range, Katha division, on the afternoon of the 12th instant.

30*th August* 1898.—No. 287.—On his return from leave, Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is appointed to the charge of the Tharrawaddy Forest division.

31*st August* 1898.—No. 288.—Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Prome and placed on duty under the orders of the Conservator of Forests, Pegu Circle.

2*nd September* 1898.—No. 20—Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator of Forests, reported his return from the two months' and 24 days' privilege leave granted him in Revenue Department Notification No. 137, dated the 25th May 1898, and resumed charge of the Pyinmana Working Plans division on the forenoon of the 30th August 1898.

3*rd September* 1898.—No. 14.—With reference to Notification No. 288 (Forests), dated the 31st August 1898, Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator, joined the office of the Conservator of Forests, Pegu Circle, on the forenoon of the 2nd September 1898.

5*th September* 1898.—No 9.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 244, dated the 30th July 1898, Mr. J. G. F. Marshall, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. W. A. Hearsey, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, received charge of the South Tenasserim division on the forenoon of the 27th August 1898.

8*th September* 1898.—No. 15.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 287 (Forests), dated the 30th August 1898, Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of the Tharrawaddy division on the afternoon of the 7th September 1898, from Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests.

10*th September* 1898.—No. 22.—In supersession of this office Notification No. 9. dated the 30th May 1898, Mr. H. McL. Carson is appointed as Ranger, 3rd grade, supernumerary, sub. *pro tem.*, on Rs. 100 per mensem, with effect from the 21st April 1898.

10*th September* 1898.—No. 28.—In supersession of this office Notification No. 10, dated the 30th May 1898, Mr. F. C. Purkis is appointed as Ranger, 3rd grade, supernumerary, permanent, on Rs. 100 per mensem, with effect from the 21st April 1898.

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13*th September* 1898.—No. 16.—Referring to Revenue Department Notification No. 296 (Forests), dated the 8th September 1898, Mr. J. J. Rorie, Assistant Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of his duties in the Tharrawaddy division on the afternoon of the 8th September 1898.

16*th September* 1898.—No 17.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 297 (Forests), dated the 8th September 1898, Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, joined the Prome Forest division on the forenoon of the 12th September 1898.

17*th September* 1898.—No. 19.—With reference to Revenue Department Notifications Nos. 280 and 281, dated the 19th August 1898, Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, made over charge of the Upper Chindwin division to Mr. C. K. Parker, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the afternoon of the 11th September 1898, and availed himself of the one month's privilege leave granted to him.

19*th September* 1898.—No. 20.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 296 (Forests), dated the 8th September 1898, Mr. J. J. Rorie, Assistant Conservator of Forests, assumed charge of his duties in the Yaw Forest Division on the forenoon of the 15th September 1898.

21*st September* 1898.—No. 803.—Mr. F. B. Dickson, Conservator of Forests, has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India an extension of furlough for six months.

23*rd September* 1898.—No. 10.—Mr. C. B. Ryan, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, availed himself of the two months' privilege leave granted him in Revenue Department Notification No. 283 (Forests), dated the 25th August 1898, on the forenoon of the 6th September 1898.

23*rd September* 1898.—No. 311.—The following alterations in rank are ordered in the Forest Department :—

(1) With effect from the 11th August 1898, consequent on the departure on privilege leave of Mr. G. Q. Corbett, Deputy Conservator, 3rd (officiating 2nd) grade, and the departure on furlough of Mr. F. J. Branthwaite, Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

Mr. H. Jackson, Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 2nd grade.

Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade (on privilege leave), to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

Mr. A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, (on privilege leave), to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade:—

Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade (on privilege leave), to officiate as deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

Mr. F. Linnel, Deputy Conservator, 4th grade, to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

Mr. W. F. Perreé, Assistant Conservator, 1st grade (officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade), to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

(2) With effect from the 18th August 1898, consequent on the departure on privilege leave of Mr. G. R. Long, Deputy Conservator, 4th (officiating 3rd) grade :—

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Mr. C. B. Smales, Assistant Conservator, 1st grade (officiating Deputy Conservator, 4th grade), to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade.

(3) With effect from the 30th August 1898, consequent on the return from privilege leave of Mr. S. Carr :

Mr. C. B. Smales, Assistant Conservator, 1st grade (officiating Deputy Conservator, 3rd grade), to officiate as Deputy Conservator, 4th grade.

26th September 1898.—No. 315.—Mr. C. R. Dun, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been permitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

28th September 1898.—No. 316.—On his return from furlough, Mr. C. L. Toussaint, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the Pegu Forest division.

No. 317.—On relief by Mr. Toussaint, Mr. McHarg, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is posted to duty in the Pegu Forest Division.

9.—Assam Gazette.

27th August 1898.—No. 6530G.—The following is published :

The undermentioned officer has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India extension of leave, as advised in list dated the 29 July 1898 :

EXTENSION OF LEAVE.

Name.	Service.	Appointment.	Period and nature of extension.
Mr. A. M. Long.	...	Assistant Conservator of Forests, Assam.	Three months, on medical certificate.

13th September 1898.—No. 6804G.—Babu Kripanath De, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, provisionally substantive, is appointed to officiate in the 3rd grade of Extra-Assistant Conservators, with effect from the afternoon of the 1st April 1898, during the absence on privilege leave for three months of Babu Upendra Nath Kanjilal, Extra-Assistant-Conservator, 3rd grade, on deputation as Vernacular Instructor at the Imperial Forest School, Dehra Dun, or until further orders.

30th September 1898.—No. 7042G.—Mr. A. R. Dicks, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on privilege leave, is, on return to duty, attached to the Sibsagar division.

10.—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

15th September 1898.—No. 801.—Mr. W. G. J. Peake, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, who was temporarily posted to the Direction Forest Division in *Residency Orders* Notification No. 248, dated the 29th July 1898, is transferred to the Ellichpur Forest Division, and will hold charge of the Kohana Forest Sub-division during the absence of Mr. S. L. Kenny on privilege leave, or until further orders.

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23rd September 1898.—No. 807.—The Resident is pleased to declare that at the departmental examination held at Amraoti on the 13th September 1898, under section 72 of the Forest Department Code, Mr. W. G. J. Peake, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, passed in Marathi by the higher standard.

11.—MYSORE GAZETTE.

20th July 1898.—No. 1071—*Mis.* 241.—Mr. M. G. Rama Rao is confirmed as Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd Class, with effect from the 3rd April 1898.

31st August 1898.—No. 1672—*Ft F.* 92-95.—Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya, Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd (acting 2nd) Class, is transferred from special duty in the Kadur district to the Shimoga district, for duty under the orders of the District Forest Officer. To join at once.

13th September 1898.—No, 2211.—*Ft. F.* 91-95.—Mr. B. Srinivasa Rao, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Hunsur Range, was granted twenty-one days' privilege leave of absence under Article 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations from 17th March to 6th April 1898, and leave on medical certificate under Article 218 of the said Regulations from 7th April to 7th June 1898, the date of his retirement being reckoned from the 8th June 1898.

13th September 1898 No. 2216.—*Ft.F.* 196.—Under Article 188 of the Mysore Service Regulations, Mr. P. E. Benson, Sub-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Shimoga district, was granted privilege leave of absence for fifteen days, with effect from the 8th August 1898.

28th September 1898.—No. 2652—*Ft. F.* 89-95.—The twelve days' casual leave of absence granted to Mr. K. Shamaiengar, Acting Assistant Conservator and District Forest Officer, Chitaldrug, in Government Notification No 176—*Ft. F.* 89-95, dated the 7th July 1898, is hereby extended by two days.

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VIII.—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1—Gazette of India.

20*th October* 1898—No. 812-F—Mr. E. McA. Moir, Deputy Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, is permitted, at his own request, to resign his appointment, with effect from the 22nd October 1898.

2.—Madras Gazette.

27*th September* 1898.—*Appointments confirmed.*—The Board of Revenue has sanctioned the confirmation of the following men as Rangers, Sixth Grade:—

(1) T. V. Sakkoji Row, Acting Ranger, Sixth Grade.

(2) Sheik Rahamattulla Saib, Acting Ranger, Sixth Grade.

28*th September* 1898.—*Leave.*—N. Swaminatha Iyer, Forest Ranger, Godavari district, is granted leave on private affairs for six months with effect from the date of relief.

30*th September* 1898.—No. 444.—

No.	Name of officer.	Present grade.	Grade to which reverted.	Remarks.
1	Mr. J. L. MacC. O'Leary	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade, and Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, 4th grade.	Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st grade.	With effect from the date of relief of the Ganjam District Forest charge.

3*rd October* 1898.—*Leave.*—T. V. Armugam Pillai, Ranger, Fifth Grade, North Coimbatore Division, is granted privilege leave for three weeks under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations from date of relief.

6*th October* 1898.—*Extension of leave*—to M. R. Ry. A. N. Venkatachellam Chetty, Ranger, Sixth Grade, Trichinopoly District, for one month under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations.

6*th October* 1898.—No. 445.—

No.	Name of officer.	District.	Remarks.
1	Mr. J. L. MacC. O'Leary	Kurnool ...	To work under the supervision of the District Forest officer.

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8th October 1898.—No. 453.—Mr. F. L. C. Cowley-Brown, Depnty Coservator of Forests, Salem, is granted furlough on medical certificate for one year from 17th July 1898, under article 340 (*a*) of the Civil Service Regulations.

11th October 1898.—*Leave.*—M R. Ry. V. P. Ramalingam Pillai, Ranger, Second Grade, Tinnevelly district, is granted sick leave on medical certificate under article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, for three months from the date of relief.

12th October 1898.—*Transfer.*—Mr. T. M. Nallasami Naidu, Extra-Assistant Conservator, Second Grade, is transferred from Kistna to Ganjam.

12th October 1898.—*Leave.*—Mr. E A. Monisse, sub. *pro tem.* Ranger, Fourth Grade, Nilgiri district, is granted leave on medical certificate, under article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, for three months from 21st September 1898.

13th October 1898.—No. 469.—

Name of officer.	District	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
Mr J. S. Scot, Assistant Conservator of Forests, Cuddapah.	Nellore ...	Acting District Forest Officer.	During the absence of Mr. F. Foulkes on leave, or until further orders.

17th October 1898.—No. 467.—Mr. F. Foulkes, District Forest Officer, Nellore, is granted privilege leave for two months with effect from or after 24th October 1898, under article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations

23rd October 1898.—*Transfer cancelled.*—The order of October 12th, transferring Mr. T. M Nallasami Naidu to Ganjam, is cancelled.

23rd October 1898.—*Leave* —Privilege leave is granted for one month to Probationary Ranger V. R. Venkataramiah attached to the Kurnool district

23rd *October* 1898 —*Transfer.*—Mr T. N. Hearsey, Extra-Assistant Conservator, Third Grade, is transferred to Ganjam.

3.—Bombay Gazette.

28th September 1898.—No. 1550.—Messrs. C. G. Dalia, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, and W. A. Wallinger, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, First Grade, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, Panch Mahâls, on the 26th September 1898, in the afternoon.

28th September 1898.—No. 1551.—Messrs. E. M. Hodgson, I. F. S., and C. G. Dalia, Extra-Assistant Conservators of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Sub-division Office, Surat, on the 27th September 1898, in the forenoon.

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30*th September* 1898.—No. 3293.—Messrs. L. Napier, Deputy Conservator of Forests, and W. R. Gavande, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Sub-division Forest Office, Poona, on the 24th September 1898, in the forenoon.

3*rd October* 1898.—No. 6322.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. G M. Ryan, on return to duty, to be Divisional Forest Officer, South Thána.

5*th October* 1898.—No. 6356.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments:—

Mr. A. C Robinson, L.C.E., to be Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests in Sind.

Mr. Balvant Ganesh Deshpánde to be Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests. Kolába Division.

5*th October* 1898.—No. 6357.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments:—

Mr. S. Hornidge, Assoc. M. Inst. C. E, to be Divisional Forest Officer, Ahmednagar, from the date Mr. C. Greatheed retires.

Mr. Váman Rámchandra Gavande to hold charge of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, Sholápur, in addition to his own duties, during the absence of Mr Hornidge or pending further orders.

5*th October* 1898.—No. 6368.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments:—

Mr. W. A. Talbot, on relief by Mr. A. T. Shuttleworth, to be Divisional Forest Officer, Belgaum.

Mr H. Murray, on return to duty, to be Divisional Forest Officer, S. D., Kánara.

8*th October* 1898.—No. 6435.—Mr. H. Murray, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Third Grade, has been allowed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India an extension of furlough for one week.

19*th October* 1898.—No. 6702.—Mr. Savlaram Balvant Ranade, Sub-divisional Forest Officer, Panch Máhals, passed an examination in Gujarati according to the Higher Standard on the 7th October 1898.

21*st October* 1898.—No. 5007.—Mr. D. A Thomson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, delivered over and Mr W. A. Talbot, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of the Belgaum Division on the forenoon of the 17th October 1898.

22*nd October* 1898.—No. 6777.—In modification of previous orders, His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to make the following appointments:—

Mr. D. A. Thomson to be Divisional Forest Officer, Kolába.

Mr. Balvant Ganesh Deshpánde to be under the orders of the Conservator of Forests, S. C.

25*th October* 1898.—No. 6807.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. J. H. Clabby to be Divisional Forest Officer, West Khándesh.

25*th October* 1898.—No 6815.—Mr. E G. Oliver, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade, and Divisional Forest Officer, N. D., Kánara, is allowed privilege leave of absence for three months with effect from 1st November 1898, or such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

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25th October 1898.—No. 6815*A*.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. W. E. Copleston to hold charge of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, N. D., Kánara, during Mr. E. G. Oliver's absence on leave.

30th October 1898.—No. 5197.—Mr. J. H. Clabby, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, delivered over and Mr. Hugh Murray, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of the Southern Division of Kánara on the forenoon of 21st October 1898.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

Nil.

5.—N-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

11th October 1898.—No. $\frac{3587}{II-451B}$. Mr. E. L. Haslett, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, from the Naini Tal to the Kumaun Forest Division of the Central Circle.

15th October 1898.—No. $\frac{3709}{II-536B}$, Mr. P. H. Clutterbuck, Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Gorakhpur Forest Division, Oudh Circle, to be Working Plans Officer of the Jaunsar Forest Division in the School Circle.

15th October 1898.—No. $\frac{3710}{II-536B}$, Mr. H. G. Billson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on return from leave, to the charge of the Gorakhpur Forest Division in the Oudh Circle.

21st October 1898.—No. $\frac{3805}{II-392C}$. Mr. N. Hearle, Officiating Conservator of Forests, Oudh Circle, on being relieved, privilege leave for three months.

21st October 1898.—No. $\frac{3809}{II-392C}$, Mr. W. A. R. Doxat, Assistant Conservator of Forests, attached to the Naini Tal Forest Division of the Central Circle, to hold charge of that division, with effect from the 8th November 1898, *vice* Mr. N. Hearle, granted leave.

6.—Punjab Gazette.

20th October 1898.—No. 436—The following promotions in the List of Extra-Assistant Conservators of Forests in the Punjab with effect from the dates specified against each are approved by the Lieutenant-Governor:—

Name.	Present Grade.	Grade to which promoted.	With effect from	Remarks.
Munshi Fazl Din, Khán Bahádur	Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade	Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.	19th September 1898.	Consequent on the retirement of Bábu Ladha Singh, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 1st Grade.
Lála Jowála Pershád	Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd Grade	Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 2nd Grade	Ditto.	

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27th October 1898.—No. $\frac{442}{\text{A. L. No. 20}}$, Mr. R. J. P Pinder, Deputy Conservator of Forests, attached to the Bashahr Forest Division, who was granted one month's privilege leave with effect from the afternoon of the 13th June 1898, *vide* Punjab Government Notification No. $\frac{818}{\text{A. L. No. 13}}$ dated 8th August 1898, resumed duty in that Division on the afternoon of the 13th July 1898.

28th October 1898.—No. $\frac{450}{\text{A. L. No. 21}}$, Mr. R. J. P. Pinder, Deputy Conservator of Forests, attached to the Bashahr Forest Division, took over charge of the Shahpur Forest Division on the afternoon of the 17th October 1898, relieving Khán Bahádur Munshi Fazl Din, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, who will remain in charge of the Chenab Division only from that date.

28th October 1898.—No. $\frac{454}{\text{A. L. No. 22}}$, Messrs. H. A. Hoghton, Deputy Conservator of Forests, and W. Mayes, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, respectively made over and received charge of the Rawalpindi Forest Division on the afternoon of the 18th October 1898, consequent on the departure of the former on three months' privilege leave.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

27th September 1898.—No. 5.—Under the authority conferred on him by the Chief Commissioner in *Central Provinces Gazette* Notification No. 3555, dated the 12th June 1890, the Conservator of Forests, Southern Circle, Central Provinces, appoints Messrs. K Rama Rao, F. J. Langhorne and N C. Chatterjee, Forest Rangers, to exercise the powers described in Section 67 of Act. VII of 1878 (as modified up to the 31st December 1894)

28th September 1898.—No. 3468.—Mr. A. M. Long, Assistant Conservator of Forests, has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India a further three months' leave on Medical certificate, in extension of the furlough granted him by the Assam Administration by the following Notifications published in the *Assam Gazette*:—

No. 1420-G, dated the 26th February 1897
No. 5350-G, dated the 13th August 1897.
No. 7409-G, dated the 11th October 1897.

5th October 1898.—No. 33.—Privilege leave for three days, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. Gauri Shankar, Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Nimar Division, in continuation of the privilege leave granted him by Departmental Order No. 19, dated the 25th July 1898.

8th October 1898.—No. 34.—Privilege leave for seven days, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Pattu Lal, Deputy Ranger, Permanent Establishment, Nimar Division, in continuation of the one month's privilege leave granted him by Departmental Order No. 29, dated the 22nd September 1898.

12th October 1898.—No. 35.—Babu Lal, Deputy Ranger, 2nd grade, sub. *pro tem*, seconded for temporary service as temporary Surveyor on Rs. 30 per mensem, is granted leave without pay for one year under Article 372 of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the date he is permitted to avail himself of it.

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14*th October* 1898.—No. 36.—The following transfers of Deputy Rangers are made :—

Mr. M. Paul, Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, from the Jubbulpore Forest Division, to the Bachai Range, Narsinghpur Forest Division.

Muhammad Yasin Khan, Deputy Ranger, 1st grade, from the Narsinghpur Forest Division, to the Bargi Range, Jubbulpore Forest Division.

17*th October* 1898.—No. 37.—Privilege leave for 12 days, under Article 291 of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. R. H. Cole, Ranger, 3rd grade, Permanent Establishment, Mandla Forest Division, with effect from the 3rd November 1898, or such subsequent date as he may be permitted to avail himself of it.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 38.—Ghulam Nabi Khan, Forest Ranger, 6th grade, Singaji Range, Nimar Forest Division, is transferred to the charge of the Kalibhit Range, Hoshangabad Forest Division.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 39.—On return from the privilege leave granted him by Departmental Order No. 26, dated the 29th August 1898, Waman Rao, Deputy Ranger, is posted to the Hoshangabad Forest Division.

On being relieved by Waman Rao, Rahman Khán, Deputy Ranger, Hoshangabad, is re-transferred to the Nimar Forest Division.

22*nd October* 1898.—No. 40.—Mr. Faiz Bakhsh, Forest Ranger, 2nd grade, Direction Division, is temporarily transferred to the charge of the Dhanwahi Range, Jubbulpore Division.

8.—Burma Gazette.

5*th October* 1898.—No. 321.—On relief by Mr. Buchanan, Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is posted to duty in the Myittha Forest Division as a temporary measure.

5*th October* 1898.—No. 322.—On his return from leave, Mr. E. M. Buchanan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the Myittha Forest Division.

5*th October* 1898.—No. 323.—Mr. S. A. Wood, Forest Ranger, 1st grade, on deputation to Siam, is appointed to be Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, on probation, with effect from the 1st March 1898.

10*th October* 1898.—No. 18.—With reference to Revenue Dpartment Notifications No. 316 and No. 317 (Forests), dated the 28th September 1898, Mr. W. T. T. McHarg, Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the Pegu division on the forenoon of the 4th October 1898, by Mr. C. L. Toussaint, Deputy Conservator of Forests.

11*th October* 1898.—No. 21.—Mr. C. M. Hodgson, Deputy Conservator of Forests, reported his return from the one month's privilege leave granted to him in Revenue Department Notification No. 280 (Forests), dated the 19th August 1898, and resumed charge of the Upper Chindwin division from Mr. G. K. Parker, Assistant Conservator of Forests, on the 30th September 1898, forenooon.

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18*th October* 1898.—No. 329.—Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Mingin to duty in the Pyinmana division, with headquarters at Pyinmana.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 330.—On his arrival in Burma, Mr. A. P. Grenfell, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the Yaw Forest Division.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 331.—On relief by Mr. Grenfell, Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is appointed to the charge of No. II Working Plans Division, in the Eastern Circle, with headquarters at Pyinmana.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 332.—Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Prome to the charge of the Thayetmyo Forest Division, as a temporary measure.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 333.—On being relieved by Mr. Lawson, Mr. H. Carter, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Thayetmyo to the charge of the Tharrawaddy Forest Division.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 334.—Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Tharrawaddy to the charge of No. I Working Plans Division, in the Eastern Circle, with headquarters at Pyinmana.

20*th October* 1898.—No. 335.—On his return from leave Mr. H. H. Forteath, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is posted to the charge of the Working Plans Division, in the Tenasserim Circle, with headquarters at Toungoo.

22*nd October* 1898.—No. 336.—Mr. H. W. A. Watson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Rangoon to duty in the Shwegyin Forest Division, with headquarters at Shwegyin.

22*nd October* 1898.—No. 337.—Mr. E. A. O'Bryen, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India an extension of furlough for nine months.

22*nd October* 1898.—No. 22.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 322 (Forests), dated the 5th October 1898, Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr. E. M. Buchanan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Myittha division on the forenoon of the 13th October 1898.

31*st October* 1898.—No. 342.—Mr. W. T. T. McHarg, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Pegu and placed on duty in the Eastern Circle.

31*st October* 1898.—No. 343.—On his return from leave Mr. A. M. Burn-Murdoch, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is placed on duty in the Eastern Circle.

31*st October* 1898.—No. 344.—The following Forest Rangers are promoted to the 4th grade of Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, with effect from the 1st November 1898, in the order mentioned below:—

Mr. P. E. Plunkett. | Mr. W. J. Dalton.

Mr. B. P. Kelly.

9.—Assam Gazette.

7*th October* 1898.—No. 7168G.—Babu Kripanath De, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, provisionally substantive, is

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confirmed in that grade, and is promoted to the 3rd grade of Extra-Asistant Conservators, provisionally substantive, with effect from the 6th July 1898.

14th October 1898.—No. 7339G.—General Department Notification No. 6804G., dated the 13th September 1898, appointing Babu Kripanath De, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, 4th grade, provisionally substantive, to officiate in the 3rd grade of Extra-Assistant Conservators, during the absence on privilege leave for three months of Babu Upendra Nath Kanjilal, Extra-Assistant Conservator, 3rd grade, published at page 878 of Part I of the *Assam Gazette*, dated the 17th September 1898, is hereby cancelled.

18th October 1898.—No. 7395G.—The following is published:

The undermentioned officer has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India, permission to return to duty, as advised in list dated the 16th September 1898.

Name.	Service.	Appointment.	Date on which permitted to return.
Mr. J. E. Barrett	...	Deputy Conservator of Forests, Assam.	Within period of leave.

10.—Hyderabad Residency Gazette.

Nil.

11.—Mysore Gazette.

5th October 1898.—No 2809—Ft. F. 27-95.—In modification of Notification No. 4905—Ft. F. 27-95, dated the 26th November 1896, the Government are pleased to order the following temporary appointments, with effect from the 8th June 1898, during the absence of Mr. C. E. M. Russell, on leave, or until further orders:—

(1) Mr. J. J. Monteiro, Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, to act, *sub pro tem*, as Assistant Conservator of Forests, 3rd Class, *vice* Mr. C. Appaya, acting in the 2nd Class.

(2) M. Srinivasa Rao, Ranger, 2nd Class (acting 1st Class), to act, *sub pro tem*, as Extra-Assistant Conservator of Forests, *vice* Mr. J. J. Monteiro.

19th October 1898.—No. 3037—Ft. F. 92-95.—Mr. Y. Sitaramaiya, B. A., Assistant Conservator of Forests, will act as District Forest Officer, Shimoga, during the deputation of Mr. Abdul Karim, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on other duty, or until further orders.

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VIII.—EXTRACTS FROM OFFICIAL GAZETTES.

1—Gazette of India.

10th November, 1898. No. 870-F.—With reference to the Notifications of this Department, Nos. 366-F. and 370-F., dated the 13th May last, the employment of Mr. A. P. Grenfell, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on special duty under the Inspector-General of Forests, ceased with effect from the 1st October, 1898, on the forenoon of which date he proceeded to join his appointment in Burma.

23rd November, 1898. No. 897-F.—On return from the privilege leave granted him in the Notification of this Department, No. 624-F., dated the 17th August, last, Mr. S. Eardley-Wilmot, Conservator, 2nd grade, resumed charge of the Oudh Forest Circle, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, from Mr. N. Hearle, Officiating Conservator, 3rd grade, in the afternoon of the 7th November, 1898.

From the same date, Mr. Hearle, Officiating Conservator, reverted to his substantive appointment of Deputy Conservator, North-Western Provinces and Oudh.

2.—Madras Gazette.

29th October 1898.—*Leave cancelled*—The three month's sick leave granted to M. R. Ry V. P. Ramalingam Pillai, Ranger, Tinnevelly district, and published on page 1354 of Part II of the *Fort St. George Gazette* dated 18th October, 1898, is cancelled.

2nd November, 1898.—*Leave.*—The Board of Revenue has granted under article 291, Civil Service Regulations, privilege leave for one month to M. R. Ry. V. Alwar Chetti Garu, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, to be availed of from the date of his being relieved of the District Forest charge of Chingleput.

3rd November, 1898.—*Transfers*—The following transfers are ordered :—

Name of Officer.	Designation.	From	To	Remarks.
Mr. H. O'Neill	Ranger 2nd Grade.	Nilgiris ...	Tinnevelly.	...
Mr. S. Noronha	Ranger, 4th Grade.	Madura ...	Nilgiris ...	To join after the expiry of the suspension period, *i. e.*, on 16th November 1898.

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19*th November*, 1898.—*Promotion.*—The following promotions in the Rangers' class are ordered with effect from 1st April, 1898.

No.	Name.	District to which attached	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted
1	M. R. Ry. A. N. Hanumantha Row. ...	South Arcot	Ranger Fifth Grade.	Ranger Fourth Grade.
1	M. R. Ry. A. P. Ramachandra Mudaliar ...	Chingleput.	Do.	Do.

22*nd November*, 1898.—No. 500.—

No.	Name and designation of officer.	District.	Nature of charge.	Remarks.
1	Mr. C. DuPre Thornton Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.	Trichinopoly *cum* Tanjore.	Acting District Forest Officer.	To join on return from furlough.
3	Mr. H. A. Latham, Acting Deputy Conservator of Forests, Fourth Grade.	South Coimbatore.	...	To work under the orders of the District Forest Officer—To join on relief by Mr. Thornton.

22*nd. November*, 1898.—*Leave.*—M. R. Ry. K. Narayanasawmi Iyer, Forest Ranger, Fifth Grade, North Coimbatore Division, is granted leave on medical certificate, under article 369 of the Civil Service Regulations, for six weeks, from 3rd November, 1898.

Confirmation.—The following confirmations are ordered with effect from the 1st April, 1898:—

Name.	Present grade.	Grade to which promoted.	Nature of promotion
Mr. A. B. Myers.	Ranger, Fifth and Sub. *pro tem.* Fourth.	Ranger, Fourth Grade.	Pemanent.
Mr. E. A. Monisse ...	Do. do.	Do. do.	Do.

3.—BOMBAY GAZETTE.

2*nd November* 1898.—No. 3737.—Messrs. R. H. Madan, Extra Deputy Conservator of Forests, and J. H. Clabby, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge, of the Divisional Forest Office, West Khándesh, on the forenoon of 21st October 1898.

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3rd November 1889.—No. 5272.—Mr. D. A. Thomson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, who was appointed Divisional Forest Officer, Kolaba, in Government Resolution No. 6777, dated 22nd ultimo. relinquished charge of his duties in the Belgaum Division on the forenoon of the 28th idem.

9th November 1898.—No. 5352.—Mr. J. H. Clabby, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, and Mr. H. Murray, Deputy Conservator, respectively handed over and received charge of, the Sub-Division Office, Southern Division of Kánara, on the afternoon of the 27th ultimo.

Mr. E. G. Oliver, Deputy Conservator, delivered over charge of the Northern Forest Division of Kanara to Mr. W. E. Copleston, acting Deputy Conservator, on the afternoon of the 3rd instant.

Mr. N. D. Satarawala, Extra Assistant Conservator, received charge of the office of the Working Plans Division, Southern Circle, from Mr. W. E. Copleston, acting Deputy Conservator, on the forenoon of the 4th instant.

10th November 1898.—No. 3903.—Messrs S. Hornidge, A.M.I.C E., Deputy Conservator of Forests, and W. R. Govande. Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of, the Divisional Forest Office, Sholapur, on the 8th November 1898. in the afternoon.

11th November 1898.—No. 1959.—Messrs. W. F. D. Fisher, I. F. S. and G. M. Ryan, I. F. S, respectively delivered over and received charge of the Divisional Forest Office, South Thána, on the 18th November 1898, before noon.

15th November 1898.—No. 7295.—His Excellency the Governor in Council is pleased to appoint Mr. V. D. P. Rebeiro, L. C. E., on the departure of Mr. W. R. Woodrow on leave, to take charge of the office of Divisional Forest Officer, Dharwar, in addition to his own duties as a temporary measure.

16th November 1898.—No. 1291.—Messrs. A. G. Edie, I. F. S, and J Dodgson. I. F. S. respectively delivered over and received charge of, the Divisional Forest Office, Central Thána, on the 12th of November 1898, in the afternoon.

16th November 1898.—Nr. 8950.—Messrs W. R. Govande, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, and L. Napier, Deputy Conservator of Forests. respectively delivered over and received charge of the Sub-Division Office, Poona, on the 7th November 1898, in the afternoon.

16th November 1898.—No. 3951.—Messrs. C. Greatheed and S. Hornidge, A.M.I.C.E., Deputy Conservators of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of, the Divisional Forest Office, Ahmednagar, on the forenoon of 9th November 1898.

19th November 1898.—No. 5507.—Messrs. A. C. Robinson, Extra Assistant, and D. A. Thomson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, respectively delivered over and received charge of, the Kolaba Forest Division on the afternoon of the 31st ultimo.

4.—Bengal Gazette.

12th November 1880.—No. 3333.—Mr. C. G. Rogers, F. C. H. Deputy Conservator of Forests, is, on return from furlough, posted to the charge of the Darjeeling Division.

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Mr. F. Trafford, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of the Direction and Darjeeling Division, on being relieved by Mr. Rogers of the charge of the latter divisions, is re-appointed to be personal Assistant to the Conservator of Forests, Bengal.

29th November 1898.—No. 3595.—Babu Sreedhur Chukerbutty, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, is granted furlough for one year, five months and 16 days, under article 371 *(b)* of the Civil Service Regulations, with effect from the 16th January 1899, or from such subsequent date as he may avail himself of it.

29th November 1898.—No. 8603.—Mr. E R. Stevens, recently appointed by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India as an Assistant Conservator of Forests, second grade, is attached to the Singhbhum Forest Division.

5.—N-W. P. and Oudh Gazette.

24th November 1898.—No. $\frac{4248}{II-585. R.}$ Babu Nand Mal, Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests, from the Kumaon to the Ganges Forest Division of the Central Circle.

6.—Punjab Gazette.

Nil.

7.—Central Provinces Gazette.

4th November 1898.—No 41.—The following transfers of subordinates are hereby ordered.

Officiating Ranger Ilahidad Khan, from the Narsinghpur to the Betul Forest Division.

Deputy Ranger Amin Chand, from the Jubbulpore to the Narsinghpur Forest Division.

9th November 1898.—No. 3996.—Mr. F. S Barker, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been granted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India six months' extraordinary leave without pay, in extension of the extraordinary leave granted him by the orders noted below :—

No. 1055, dated the 19th February 1897.
No. 3656, dated the 6th August 1897.
No 4828, dated the 8th November 1897.
No. 548, dated the 10th February 1898.

8.—Burma Gazette.

1st November 1898.—No. 19.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 332 (Forests), dated the 20th October 1898

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Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, was relieved of his duties in Prome division on the afternoon of the 26th October 1898 on transfer to the Thayetmyo division.

1*st November* 1898.—No. 20.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 331 (Forests), dated the 90th October 1888, Mr. H. Carter, Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of the Thayetmyo Forest Division by Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests on the forenoon of the 27th October 1898.

1*st November* 1898.—No. 21.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 336 (Forests) dated the 22nd October 1898, Mr. H. W. A. Watson Assistant, Conservator of Forests, was relieved of his duties in the office of the Conservator of Forests, Pegu Circle, on the afternoon of the 24th October 1898.

1*st November* 1898.—No. 24.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 328 (Forests), dated the 18th October 1898, Mr. G. E. S. Cubitt, Assistant Conservator of Forests, assumed charge of his duties in the Pyinmana division of the forenoon of the 25th October, 1898.

2*nd November* 1898.—No. 22.—With reference to Revenue Department Notifications Nos. 333 and 334 (Forests), dated the 20th October 1898 Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator of Forests, was relieved of the charge of Tharrawaddy Forest division by Mr. H. Carter, Deputy Conservator of Forests, on the afternoon of the 1st November 1898.

3*rd November* 1898.—No. 23.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 330 (Forests), dated the 20th October 1898, Mr. C. W. Doveton, Assistant Conservator of Forests, made over, and Mr A. P. Grenfell, Deputy Conservator of Forests, received charge of, the Yaw Forest division on the 31st October 1898, forenoon.

8*th November* 1898.—No. 25.—With reference to Revenue Department Notification No. 334 (Forests), dated the 20th October 1898 Mr. S. Carr, Deputy Conservator of Forests, Working Plans division, relinquished charge of the Tharrawaddy Forest division on the afternoon of the 1st November 189 and reported his arrival in Pyinmana on the 4th November 1898.

14*th November* 1898.—No. 354.—On his return from leave Mr. G. Q. Corbett, Deputy Conservator of Forests is potsed to the charge of the Thayetmyo Forest division.

14*th November* 1898.—No. 355.—On relief by Mr. Corbett, Mr. A. H. M. Lawson, Assistant Conservator of Forests, is transferred from Thayetmyo and placed on duty in the Eastern circle.

14*th November* 1898.—356.—On his return from leave Mr. C. R. Dun, Deputy Conservator of Forests, is placed on duty in the Northern Shan States, under the orders of the Conservator of Forests, Eastern Circle.

15*th November* 1898.—No. 357.—Mr. A. Smythies, Conservator of Forests, has been permitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

24*th November* 1898.—No. 363.—Mr. M. Hill, Deputy Conservator of Forests, has been permitted by Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India to return to duty within the period of his leave.

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9.—ASSAM GAZETTE.

21*st November* 1898 —No. 8279G.—Furlough on medical certificate for one year, under article 340 (*a*) of the Civil Service Regulations, is granted to Mr. F. E. B. Lloyd, Officiating Deputy Conservator of Forests, in charge of Kamrup Forest Division, with effect from the 22nd October 1898.

21*st November* 1898.—No. 8325G.—Babu Tara Kisor Gupta, Extra Assistant Conservator, in charge of the Nowgong Forest Division, is placed in charge of the Kamrup Forest Division, in addition to his other duties, during the absence on leave of Mr. F. E. B. Lloyd, or until further orders.

10.—HYDERABAD RESIDENCY GAZETTE.

Nil.

11 MYSORE GAZETTE.

29*th November* 1898.—No. 3642—*Ft. F.* 12-98—Mr. J. L. Pigot is appointed Conservator of Forests in Mysore, *vice* Colonel I. Campbell-Walker retiring.

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REPORT

ON THE

MANUFACTURE OF SPIRITS OF TURPENTINE AND COLOPHONY,

WITH

SPECIAL REFERENCE TO FRENCH METHODS.

CALCUTTA:
OFFICE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, INDIA.
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WITH

SPECIAL REFERENCE TO FRENCH METHODS.

India Office letter No. 155 R. and S., dated 3rd February 1897, enclosing copy of despatch from the Government of India, No. 371 (Financial), dated 30th December 1896.

In the marginally-quoted letter I was instructed to proceed to the Continent for the purpose of studying the manufacture of turpentine and resin as there carried on; to examine carefully the process of distillation practised at the works visited; to obtain drawings of the stills employed, and to pay special attention to the final dressing for the market of the manufactured article. A preliminary enquiry from specialists and drysalters in London indicated the French methods of manufacture, conducted in the departments of the Landes and the Gironde, as at once the most scientific in principle and the best in practice. The finest products are obtained from the crude resin which is collected in the spring or early summer.

2. Accordingly, on the 10th May I proceeded to Paris, where I obtained, through the British Embassy and the Directeur des Forêts, an introduction to the Conservator of Forests at Bordeaux, in whose district the industry is carried on. On May 13th, 15th, 17th, 18th, and 21st I inspected resin factories, differing more or less as regards the methods employed, at La Teste, Lacanau and Facture (Gironde) and at Labonheyre (Landes). After studying the manner in which the crude resin is collected in the forests of the sea pine (*Pinus Maritima*) and is transported to the factories, I interviewed various designers and engineers and discussed the question of rosin and turpentine plant, especially as regards the most suitable stills for India, and the purification of both the crude oleo-resin and the manufactured products. On May 25th I returned to my residence after an absence of sixteen days.

Secretiveness of the French manufacturers.

The enquiry was attended by the anticipated difficulty that, except as concerns the oldest system of working, the manufacturers are extremely unwilling or decline altogether to explain improvements they have themselves introduced in their business. The number of factories is considerable, competition is keen, and not a few trade secrets are jealously guarded. Thus at the factory of La Teste, whose products are celebrated

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for their good qualities, the proprietor, while courteously permitting a detailed examination of his older plant, was unable to accede to my request to view the more perfected machinery which he was setting up. Similarly, an opportunity to inspect the elaborate steam-distillation plant at Facture, one of the factories belonging to the Société française de la térébenthine, was secured with difficulty, and the visit was only possible at all because the factory was not working at the time. Again, the owners of the better factories are often their own designers, at least as regards improvements in the original plant. Portions of the plant are ordered piece-meal from local firms or even from England, so that the general idea may not be divulged. For the foregoing reasons it was impossible to take measurements or to obtain drawings, other than rough sketches, of plant in actual use. But through the kindness of Mr. W. R. Hearn, the British Consul at Bordeaux, a local still-constructor, Monsieur Tocaven,* who has had great experience in designing and setting up resin-plant, agreed to furnish me with the drawings attached to this report.

None of the constructors or designers consulted would agree to furnish on payment drawings which might be used at will by the Government of India. The accompanying drawings have been furnished *gratis* by Monsieur Tocaven on the local commercial terms, that is to say, on the clear understanding that the plans, at least as regards stills and still-accessories, shall not be used in connection with an order to be executed by another firm or manufacturer.

General facts relating to oleo-resins, spirits of turpentine, and rosin.

3. Turpentines are the oleo-resins which exude from certain coniferous trees and from the terebinth tree (*Pistacia terebinthus*). They are semi-fluids or soft-solids, consisting of a mixture of resins and essential oils which, though presenting different physical characters, may be chemically represented by the formula C_{10} H_{16}. They are employed medicinally as liniments and ointments, but are used mainly in the arts, for which purpose they are separated by distillation into (*i*) rosin or colophony, and (*ii*) oil or spirits of turpentine. Freshly exuded oleo-resin, when pure, is almost colourless or of a pale amber or straw shade. It is insoluble in water, but is dissolved by ether, alcohol or spirits of turpentine. It has the consistency of honey and a terebinthinous taste and smell. Its consistency and colour vary, however, with the season of the year and the temperature at the time of exudation; and under the influence of a lower temperature it becomes milky white or yellowish in colour, and solid. In France, the resin collected during the warmer months of spring and summer contains a greater proportion of essential oil and produces colophony of the higher or less-coloured grades. In America the best quality, known as "virgin dip" or "soft white gum," from which the "window-glass" and "water-white" grades of colophony are made, is obtained from trees bled for the first time. In each succeeding year the oleo-resin becomes darker ("yellow-dip"), more viscid and less rich in volatile oil. French experience, however, indicates as probable that this degradation is due not so much to the age of the scar as to

* Monsieur J. Tocaven, 34 Rue Lombard, Bordeaux.

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over bleeding, combined with a defective method of collecting and transporting the raw produce.

Classification of oleo-resins.

4. The various turpentines or oleo-resins known in commerce may be briefly described as follows, although common turpentine is alone of much importance.

(*a*) *Crude or common turpentine.*—This is the term applied in the trade to the oleo-resins obtained from various coniferous trees in America and Europe. The American product, which greatly preponderates in the world's trade, is drawn from the long-leaved or southern pine (*P. palustris*) and the loblolly pine (*P. Toeda*), of which there are immense forests in the coast-bordering States from Louisiana to North Carolina. The principal European product, commonly known in the London market as Bordeaux turpentine, is mainly derived from the forests of the sea pine (*P. Maritima*) in the departments of the Gironde and the Landes in France; also from the Scotch fir (*P. sylvestris*) throughout northern Europe and from *P. Laricio* in Austria and Corsica.

(*b*) *Venice turpentine.*—Is obtained from the Larch (*Larix Europæa*), principally in the Tyrol. In spring-time a hole is bored or cut in the trunk towards the centre of the stem, and a plug inserted. In the autumn of the same or of the following year, the plug is withdrawn and the crude resin removed. Half a pound of resin may be yearly obtained without injury to the tree. Venice turpentine is the least siccative of all. It is used medicinally on the Continent, which absorbs the entire annual output.

(*c*) *Strasburg turpentine.*—Was formerly widely known, but is now said to be collected only in small quantities in the Vosges mountains. The oleo-resin is found in utricules or small blisters in the bark of the silver fir (*Abies pectinata*), and is collected in cans furnished with a small sharp-pointed tube-nozzle. Each blister is pierced in turn by the tube, down which the resin flows until the can is full. A large vigorous tree yields as much as one pound of resin, but half that quantity may be taken as the average supply.

(*d*) *Less widely-known varieties.*—Canadian turpentine or Canada balsam from *Abies balsamea* is collected in much the same manner as the Strasburg product, and the same may be said of Carpathian balsam from *P. Cembra*. Resins are also collected for trade purposes from *P. Pumilio* and *P. halepensis*. The turpentine obtained from the terebinth tree (*Pistacia terebinthus*), which inhabits the Mediterranean shores and extends to Central Asia, was known in very early times. It is now represented in commerce by Chian turpentine, supplied wholly from the island of Scio, where some 1,000 trees are tapped and yield annually about as many pounds of resin for medicinal purposes.

Spirits of turpentine.

5. Oil or spirits of turpentine is obtained by distillation from any of the foregoing oleo-resins, but for commercial purposes and on a large scale only from common turpentine. Apart from the minor kinds used pharmaceutically, there are but three varieties, known to the trade as American, French and Russian, (*P. sylvestris*) oils. Freshly prepared spirits of turpentine is a colourless, oily, highly inflammable liquid of peculiar

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odour and hot pungent taste. Its varieties form the pinene group of the terpenes, having the formula $C_{10}H_{16}$. At ordinary temperatures the oil varies in density between 0·856 and 0·870, and the boiling point ranges from 306° to 342° F. (152° to 172°C). The average may be taken, for French and American oils, at 316° F. Optically the oil rotates the plane of polarized light either to the right or left, according to its source. The American oil is characteristically dextro-rotatory, and the same property is usually observable in Russian and Swedish oils. The French product, on the other hand, is stated to be uniformly lævo-rotatory. Oil of turpentine is soluble in ether, benzol, alcohol, in other essential oils, and is itself a good solvent of resin, fats and caoutchouc. On exposure to the air it dries quickly to a fine white dust. It is industrially used in the manufacture of rubber, varnishes, paints, etc. Russian turpentine, the third main trade variety known in the London market, consists mainly of a hydrocarbon (sylvestrene) which boils from 16° to 20° C. higher and is otherwise different. It is used for special purposes and need not be further considered. The French distiller of crude turpentine does not rectify his spirits, which are ready for market after standing for a few days. Rectification is a separate industry and is effected by agitating the commercial oil with an alkaline carbonate in solution and by re-distillation. All trace of water in the distillate is got rid of by a further distillation over calcium chloride.

Rosin or Colophony.

6. Rosin is the solid constituent of the crude oleo-resin left after distillation. It is a very brittle, friable, homogeneous, amorphous substance, softening at 176° F. and melting entirely at the temperature of boiling water or a little lower, *i.e.*, between 200° and 212° F. In colour it varies from an opaque pitchy black through grades of brown and amber to an almost perfectly transparent glassy hue. Great opacity and darkness of colour is not usually due, as often supposed, to the burning of impurities, such as bark or chips, during distillation; but is mainly caused by the presence of water, which gives rise to crystals of abietic acid. The colour and degree of transparency vary according to the origin and kind of crude resin employed, the season of tapping, and the degree of care used in the manufacture. The market value of rosin is entirely regulated by its paleness and transparency; and as opacity and darkness are caused mainly by overheating and the presence of water, the manufacturer seeks to overcome these defects as far as possible. Its specific gravity is regarded as 1·07, but the weight varies with the quantity of volatile oil present. It is almost tasteless, resembles crude resin in its solvents and has a faint terebinthinous odour. Each grade of crude resin produces its peculiar rosin, and in France the better manufacturers exercise great care in the blending of the raw produce. Thus samples of spring oleo-resin, collected in the "dune," would not be mixed for simultaneous distillation with resin from the forests of the "lande" which produces a somewhat inferior rosin. The commercial grades are numerous and range in America from A (black) through K (low pale) to W. G. (window-glass) and W. W. (water-white), the last being about three times as valuable as the first.* Chemically, rosin is regarded as an anhydride of abietic acid

* The American grades are:—A (black), B (common strain), C (strain), D (good strain), E (No. 2), F (good No. 2), H (No. 1), I (good No. 1), K (low pale), M (pale), N (extra pale), W. G. (window-glass), W. W. (water-white).

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(C_{44}. H_{68} O_4), because, when boiled with alkaline solutions or with dilute alcohol, it takes up a molecule of water and becomes abietic acid. A similar change takes place slowly under the action of the air when rosin, mixed with volatile oils, is flowing from the tree. This accounts for the opacity of the oleo-resin, observable at the close of the tapping season. The use of rosin in yellow soaps is due to the fact that the abietic acid decomposes carbonate of soda and combines with caustic alkali, forming in both instances a slimy brown mass called rosin soap, containing 16 per cent. of dry soda. In this condition it has a great attraction for water, and when mixed with fats is sold as a cheap soap. The lighter shades of rosin, or colophony, are alone used in the better kinds of this soap; but dark rosins are sometimes clarified for the purpose by being boiled in a weak solution of common salt after being, in the first instance, melted and filtered. In addition to soap-making, rosin is employed in pharmacy for ointments and plasters, and is largely used in soldering metals, in the pitching of beer barrels, for shoemaker's wax, and in the manufacture of low-grade varnishes, of cements and of sealing-wax. Submitted to the action of destructive distillation at a very high temperature, the lower grades of rosin are largely converted into rosin oil, a heavy light coloured, nearly opaque, viscid fluid, which is much used as an adulterant for fatty oils, for printer's inks, and as a lubricant.

Manufacture of spirits of turpentine and rosin.

7. The following observations apply, unless the contrary is stated, to the industry as practised in France. The separation of the oleo-resin into its constituents, rosin and spirits of turpentine, is based on the fact that the boiling points of these substances are very different; and the operation whatever may be the details of the process employed is always (except in the crudest system presently to be referred to) divided as follows:—*First*, by a preliminary melting and filtering of the crude resin, impurities, such as earth and pieces of bark and wood, are removed. *Secondly*, by distilling the residue, the more volatile spirits of turpentine is driven off as vapour mixed with steam. These gases are condensed and are separated automatically and easily, owing to the difference in the specific weights. The molten colophony remaining in the still is drawn off to the barrels or moulds after a final filtering. It is important to bear in mind that the first operation, well conducted, is as necessary to success as careful distillation; and that it has been found practically impossible, even when distilling by steam only, to obtain colophonies of the best qualities without having recourse to it. Connected with this part of the manufacture is the cleanly collection of the raw produce in the forest and its transport to the factory in a proper manner. It is stated in the Government of India's despatch, referred to at the commencement of this report, that the Forest Department is already acquainted with the best methods of resin extraction. A study, however, of the methods until lately in actual practice in the North-Western Provinces suggests that, judging from the French standard of work, there may be scope for improvement. Thus in France, special care is taken to remove all the rough bark in immediate proximity to the bleeding scar, and to prevent the entry of solid impurities

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into the resin pots. Again, in the collection and transport of the crude resin, wooden or copper vessels are alone employed. The resin-pots are emptied in the first place into small hand buckets, and thence the crude stuff is poured either directly into casks for transport to the factory, or into wooden water-tight reservoirs conveniently distributed in the forest. For such reservoirs, a large iron-hooped barrel, well tarred without and buried to three-fourths of its height in the ground, is perhaps the best. The common resin barrel contains 235 litres or 52 gallons, though a barrel of 340 litres or 75 gallons is seen in certain parts. The crude resin is poured into the barrels through a small rectangular opening cut in the side and measuring about 12″ by 8″. This opening can be closed by a well-fitting door, entirely removable but furnished with metal fastenings, and the joining is, if required, roughly cemented with moss and clay. The barrels are hooped with iron or not, but in the latter case the interstices of the staves are clay-luted where necessary to prevent resin exuding. *In no stage is resin carried in iron vessels, which are distinctly harmful.*

Purification of the oleo-resin.

8. The manner in which the crude resin is subjected to a preliminary melting and purification varies greatly in detail, but the following principles are observed in the best factories. First, the boilers are of copper; and it may here be remarked that throughout the plant, whether in the operations of melting, straining, distilling, condensing or storing, iron, which gives a dark or reddish colour to the products, should be avoided and *copper* employed instead. The strainers alone are in brass wire gauze. Next, the crude turpentine, which is a bad conductor of heat, should be gradually and uniformly warmed, the temperature being kept well under control, so as to obviate burning or unnecessary escape of volatile oil. The less heat that is applied the better. The boilers are usually sunk level with the ground and heated by an ordinary furnace. They are often hemispherical, but usually resemble in shape the common Indian copper cooking *degchi*. Their size varies with the average daily consumption of the factory; those at La Teste are two in number, each with a capacity of about ten barrels of crude turpentine, or about 520 gallons. Some manufacturers employ as well a steam-coil in order to raise the temperature of the mass evenly, and the top of the open boiler may be furnished with a movable lid to hinder the escape of gas. M. Lesca's boilers are open: in his factory the melting turpentine is gently stirred and a steam-coil is no longer used, because it was ascertained that, whether by reason of an escape of steam from the coil or otherwise, the clarified crude resin was of better quality without it, and especially that it could be more quickly distilled. The best boilers are those with a small furnace below and a hot water-jacket round the side, fed by a superheated steam pipe so that the temperature can be easily controlled. At La Teste, a ten-barrel boiler is heated for three or four hours and the temperature is kept as nearly as possible to 185°F (85°C). The grosser impurities for the most part either fall to the bottom or rise to the surface. Those at the top, including light-coloured patches of resin containing water in excess, are carefully removed with a long-handled scoop or strainer. The melted resin, with the exception of the lower impure

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portion which is subsequently removed and used in the manufacture of low-grade rosins and tar, is drawn off from the boiler, either directly to the still through a valvular cock and pipe, or to a hot reservoir. In the latter case, as at La Teste, the resin is first passed through a straw-filter, identical with the closely-made straw roofing of an Indian country cart, and then undergoes a further filtering through coarse wire-gauze. The object of the hot reservoir (chandière de dépôt) is to maintain in readiness for the still a quantity of oleo-resin sufficient to prevent any stoppage in the working or the mixing of resins varying much in quality. For this purpose the reservoir should be close to the still, and should be filled with a water-bath and steam pipe so that the temperature may be maintained at or about 167°F. (75°C). As already stated, a preliminary melting and purification of the raw produce is now considered essential, especially if colophonies of high grade are sought for. In some factories, as in that of M. Dupin at Labouheyre (Landes), the crude resin, as it reaches the works, is conveyed directly to the still; but the colophony thus manufactured is admittedly and necessarily of low grade, and the spirits of turpentine of inferior though fair quality. Again, the largest and richest of the French resin companies, "La Société de térébinthine française", was compelled, after careful trials, to melt and purify before distilling, though in this case high class spirits rather than fine colophony is sought for. Possibly the cause of the comparative lack of quality in the spirits and rosin made at Dehra Dún may be sought for here, and the matter has therefore been referred to in some detail.

Distillation. Various methods.

9. The distillation of the clarified oleo-resin is conducted in France in five different ways, of which however only three need be referred to in detail as bearing on the immediate development of the industry in India.

The methods, following the order in which they have severally been introduced and applied in practice, are known as (*i*) distillation by furnace heat only, (*ii*) the mixed method of distillation by furnace heat and steam combined, and (*iii*) distillation by steam only.

Common distillation.

10. The sealed drawing No. 1 accompanying this report illustrates the first of these systems. The resin is transported from the heated reservoir into a receptacle which measures exactly the quantity to be distilled at each operation, usually from 50 to 66 gallons, and known as the charge. By raising the wide valve at the base of the charge, the turpentine flows rapidly into the still, and the heat is evenly raised until the whole mass has a temperature of about 316°F. (158°C.), the boiling point of oil of turpentine. When a temperature of 212°F. is reached, the accidental water as well as ether and methylic alcohol, pyroligneous and formic acids (the whole being termed in America "low wine"), begin to come over; and when the heat attains 316°, water and turpentine oil distil in their turn. Towards the close of the operation, *i.e.*, in from 15 to 45 minutes according to the amount of heat applied and the quality of the crude resin, two to four gallons of warm water are taken from the top of the condenser-tank and are poured into the still through the cover attached to it. Brisk effervescence ensues and most of the remaining spirit is somewhat rapidly carried over; but care must be taken at the same time

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to stoke the furnace and maintain a temperature at or below 316°F. The distillation is stopped when the rumbling sound in the still changes to a crackling noise, or when the mixed water and essence, taken from the condenser-outflow in a measuring glass, indicates that the spirits have a certain proportion, say one-twentieth to one-tenth, of the volume of the underlying water. Success mainly depends upon the degree of heat used during the operation, especially when the spirits no longer come over freely, and the moment when the distillation is stopped. Generally speaking, the less heat applied and the more even the application, the better are the resulting products. A certain amount of essence must be left behind in the still, as otherwise the colophony would be dark-coloured or difficult to clarify. The volatile essence, with steam and a small proportion of other gases, on passing over from the still enters the condensing apparatus indicated in the drawing, and the whole in liquid form flows into a receptacle. The arrangement permits of the essence and water settling according to their densities: the lighter oil floating on the top flows into a separate adjacent trough, while the water is automatically drawn off by a syphon. The condensing tank should be kept really cool, and for this purpose a plentiful cold-water supply, from an overhead tank or otherwise, is essential. In the French factories visited the tanks were supplied either by a steam or a water-wheel pump. When distillation is stopped most of the fire is quickly raked out, the still-cap is removed, the large wooden clay-luted plug stopping the orifice at the base of the still is extracted, and the rosin rapidly drains off through filters to the moulds or to the barrels for shipment. The plug is re-inserted before all the rosin has run out, so as to prevent injury to the still bottom; the contents of a fresh charge are *at once* admitted to the still, and stoking re-commences as before. The whole operation for a charge of 66 gallons requires from 20 to 60 minutes. The percentage of weight of raw resin converted into colophony and spirits of turpentine varies mainly according to the season in which the resin is collected. For oleo-resins barrelled from March to August inclusive, the yield in turpentine spirit varies from 79 to 99 lbs. per barrel of 52 gallons (235 litres); and for resins collected in September, October and November, from 75 to 81 lbs. Oil of turpentine obtained by this system can be easily clarified and is brilliant, but is somewhat, though very little, denser than that distilled by the mixed method presently to be described. On the other hand, the rosin is of inferior quality, often dark-coloured and smoky, unsuited to various industries, notably the sizing of paper and soap-making.

Mixed method of distillation.

11. The application of the foregoing method is attended by several drawbacks. Crude turpentine being a poor conductor of heat, the distiller is forced to raise the temperature of the resin, especially at the bottom of the still, to a degree such that, even if burning does not ensue, colophony of fine clear quality cannot be obtained. This difficulty has been partially surmounted by advantage being taken of the peculiarity that distillation is facilitated by the admission of water in small quantities to the still. But such admission itself lowers the temperature and necessitates further active stoking of the furnace. Attempts made to stir the oleo-resin during distillation, though correct in principle, have proved very inconvenient in

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practice. The machinery sooner or later became clogged with hardened rosin, and the agitator has been finally abandoned. But the drawback has been practically overcome by taking advantage of the property of oleo-resin to distil quickly and easily in contact with steam, especially when superheated. This is the characteristic of the mixed method in which, after a preliminary heating by the furnace, a small quantity of steam is admitted through a perforated steam-coil submerged in the turpentine. The steam so introduced acts not merely as an agitator and disintegrating agent, but serves as well to carry over with it to the condensing worm the vapourized spirits of turpentine. After the oleo-resin in the charge has been admitted to the still at a temperature of about 203° F (95° C), the heat is gently raised to 302° F (120° C), when steam is admitted. It is in the admission of steam that the distiller in charge indicates his skill. A leading manufacturer, in reply to an enquiry on the point, writes: "It is very difficult to furnish precise information, because all depends on the efficient working of the apparatus and the skill of the man in charge. Steam is introduced in greater or less quantity. Certain workmen are in favour of more than others who try, on the contrary, to restrict admission as far as possible. I repeat the matter is one which is left to the appreciation of the operator in charge." In any case, as the steam is at low pressure, the worm of small diameter and the time of admission short, the quantity introduced is relatively small. The admission of steam lowers the temperature, so that the furnace must be stoked concurrently. To complete the distillation, a little water is admitted at the top of the still as in the first method. Temperature is to some extent regulated by the thermometer let into the body of the still; but frequently there is no thermometer, long practice enabling the distiller to work by eye and ear alone. Oleo-resins collected in March—August and distilled in this manner give 95 to 105 lbs. of spirits per barrel (of 52 gallons or about 517 lbs.) and 350 to 370 lbs. of dry residue. The oil is light, brilliant and can be easily rectified. The resulting rosins belong to the French types 7 to 12, according to the quality of the crude resin and its place of origin, the resin derived from pines grown on sand (*dunes*) being superior. Carefully selected samples of crude resin, obtained at the first crop in spring, produce high-class colophonies, which are clarified still further by exposure to sunlight. These pale rosins are the grades A. A. and C. S. (France) or W. G. and W. W. (America). Generally speaking, while the mixed method of distillation gives in quantity a somewhat inferior yield, the quality of the products, especially of the colophony, is much superior.

Steam distillation.

12. The third method of distillation is quite new, and is known as that of the Société de térébenthine française. In this process steam is alone employed for melting and distillation. The plant is complicated and sketches, sufficient even for a diagramatic drawing, could not be obtained; but the system may be briefly described as follows. The crude oleo-resin is first liquified by steam heat, and is then introduced into a long tank with a double bottom which is kept at a certain temperature. The turpentine flows from one end of the tank to the other through a graduated series of gauze filters, arranged vertically in frames which can be removed and cleaned when required. From the further end of the tank

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a valve admits the turpentine to the charge, here known as the "bottle," containing the amount to be distilled at each operation. The contents of the bottle are forced at will by steam into a vapourizing chamber, surrounded by a steam jacket and furnished internally with a steam coil. Steam at a pressure of 4 to 7 kilograms per square centimeter is admitted to the jacket and coil. The temperature of the chamber rises to 150° C. (302° F.) and the volatile constituents of the resin come over. The vapours are led in the first instance into a closed hollow cylinder about 5 feet high by 2 feet 6 inches wide, pierced from end to end by a very large number of small hollow tubes in close juxtaposition and inside which air freely circulates. The essential feature of the process is stated to lie in these tubes, which act in a mechanical manner upon the gases circulating in the interstices, producing thus a larger quantity and a superior quality of spirits of turpentine. When the vapourizing chamber has been heated for a certain time, a small quantity of cold water is poured on to the top of the tubular cylinder. The water falls through the tubes, the temperature of the cylinder sinks, a partial vacuum is created and distillation proceeds very actively. From the tubular cylinder, the gases are led through an ordinary condensing worm in a cold water tank, and the spirits of turpentine and water are collected in the usual way. The colophony is drawn off through a valve in the bottom of the still and, after passing through an oscillating gauze filter moved by hand, is run into tilt-wagons on rails, and thence directly into the export casks. At Facture (Gironde) the actual distilling plant is double, so that work may proceed uninterruptedly. The average daily consumption in the busy season is about 2,300 gallons of crude resin. The colophony is somewhat inferior, but the oil of turpentine is unsurpassable in quality. The approximate cost of the Facture factory, which is typical of a number of others belonging to the Société française, was 7,000 francs for buildings and 26,000 francs for machinery.

Other methods of distillation.

13. The remaining methods of distillation are known as crude distillation and Monsieur Col's system. In the former (distillation à cru), the crude resin is distilled in closed vessels without a preliminary melting and filtering. The distilling apparatus is more complicated than in the first two systems, and the object is to increase the quantity of spirits and rosin yielded, without looking much to quality. The yield in spirits varies between 43 and 50 kilograms per barrel of 235 litres for oleo-resins of the best kind. From autumn (September-November) resin the yield is from 33 to 38 kilograms per barrel. The overheating (surchauffe) unavoidable in this process causes the volatilisation of a certain quantity of resin oil, which renders the spirits of turpentine heavier and difficult to clarify. The rosins are generally lustreless and smoky, and may even be blackish and opaque owing to the fact that the watery constituent of the crude resin evaporates with difficulty. The method is therefore impracticable when pale colophony is required. The advantages of the method are that the cost is small and the yield in quantity of products is high. In the factory visited at Labouheyre, where crude distillation is practised in an ordinary still, the spring resin was stated to yield, on the average from day to day and per barrel (in this case of 340 litres or 75 gallons),

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110lbs. of spirits and from 350 to 380lbs. of colophony, the balance being almost useless except for pitch.

The fifth method of distillation is that invented and practised by Monsieur Col at Casteljaloux (Lot-et-Garonne). The crude resin is distilled in closed vessels, but by a special and very complicated machinery, the details of which are kept secret. The factory furnishes excellent products, and it is understood that Monsieur Col is willing to sell duplicates of his apparatus in working order. The machinery, however, is complex and requires skilled mechanics, and it seems unquestionable that the system is entirely unsuited to India.

Project for an Indian Factory.

14. Drawing No. 2, on the scale of $\frac{1}{20}$ th, indicates, in sectional elevation and plan, a complete project for a factory working either by furnace heat only or by the mixed method. The general arrangement combines various advantages noticed in several of the factories inspected, sketches of which were furnished by me to Monsieur Tocaven, who completed the design,* especially as regards the still. Steam is furnished by a Field's boiler, working at 6 kilograms pressure per square centimeter, and is introduced at a pressure of 2½ kilograms to the double bottomed hot reservoir and charge, as well as to the still worm: the latter may be perforated or not. The crude oleo-resin is melted by furnace heat in the large boiler containing 1,600 litres, and thence flows to the still through the hot reservoir (600 litres) and the charge (300 litres), being purified on its way either by hand or by passing through metallic sieves and gauze as already described. The filters for the molten colophony as it leaves the still are not indicated in the drawing, which is, however, in other respects fully scaled and clearly indicates the process employed.

Filtering and purification of resin and spirits of turpentine: barrelling for export.

15. The spirits of turpentine as it issues from the condensing worm is always cloudy, more or less, and must be left to stand during an interval which varies from 24 hours in the best factories to 4 or 5 days. For this purpose the oil is deposited either in large glazed earthenware barrel-shaped vessels (jarres) with wooden lids, sunk in the ground and containing each from 50 to 100 gallons, or preferably

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* Foot Note.—The following is extracted from the rough specification furnished by the manufacturer:—

"1. Une chandière vapeur en tôle acier, système Fields, de 20 mètres de surface de chauffe et timbiér à 6 kilog. de pression, avec tous les accessoires et injecteur d'alimentation, et cheminée de 5 à 6 mètres en tôle fer.

2. Une pompe vapeur pour faire le plein du bassin par le plus haute, et au besoin pour alimenter la chandière à vapeur.

3. Chandière cuivre à feu nu, et serpentin intérieur pour marcher à la vapeur. Chapitot cuivre et serpentin réfrigéront cuivre. Bassin en tôle galvanisée pour le dit serpentin, et bassin cuivre pour recevoir less essences.

4. Chandière cuivre à feu nu de 1,200 litres.

5. Chandière à double fond en cuivre de 600 litres.

6. Chandière à double fond en cuivre de 300 litres.

7. Trois purgeurs automatiques, 2 pour les 2 chaudières à double fond, 1 pour le serpentin de la chandière à feu nu.

8. Un détendeur de vapeur pour la chandière à double fond, pour détendre la vapeur à 2½ kilog.

9. Toute la robinetterie nécessaire en bronze.

10. Tous les tuyantages faits à demande pour la recordation des chandières et divers.

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in large copper reservoirs. The impurities settle to the bottom, from which they are sucked up and removed by a small pump, or the clear spirit is drawn off from the top of the jar or reservoir to another receptacle. Storage vessels are practically air-tight to prevent evaporation; and the lids of jars used for this purpose are carefully luted with clay. When sent to market at Bordeaux, the spirit is usually run into stout iron-hooped well-made barrels, weighing each about 220 lbs. and containing 1,100 lbs. (500 kilograms) of oil. Old petroleum or claret casks, made of chestnut wood and costing from 40 to 50 francs each, are commonly used, and each barrel is coated internally with glycerine as a safeguard against leakage. Iron receptacles or reservoirs should not be used.

Filtering of rosin.

16. For filtering, both straw mats and metallic netting and cloth are used. The straw filters are prepared after the fashion of a finely-made Indian door chick, and resemble in quality and appearance the straw rain-protecting roof of an Indian country cart. They are used in the preliminary purification of the crude resin and only for the removal of the grosser impurities. The galvanized iron or zinc wire sieve (No. 8). containing about 36 meshes to the square inch, is employed for the same purpose.

For further and finer filtering, the melted rosin. on leaving the still, is run into wooden or copper-framed troughs, of which the bottom is composed of metallic* cloth overlying a supporting brass sieve. These troughs may be superposed one over the other, the fineness of the metallic cloths increasing as the filtering proceeds. The rosin is then run either directly into barrels or, in the case of the finest qualities, into large copper receptacles, from which, while still hot, it is placed in shallow metal pans for further clarification by sunlight. The degree of fineness of the brass sieves and cloth is known by the number of wires per French inch of 29 millimetres. The commonest grades are: for the sieves and supports, Nos. 8, 16, and 20; and for the cloth Nos. 100, 150, and 200. The number of filters and their fineness largely depend on the degree of purification undergone by the oleo-resin before introduction to the still. Thus, in the high class factory of La Teste, preliminary filtering is effected through straw "claies" and a coarse metallic gauze, and on leaving the still the colophony is run through one filter only, No. 150 supported on No. 20. On the other hand, at the factory inspected at Labouheyre, where the crude resin, mixed with chips, bark, earth and other impurities, is placed in the still, the operation is as follows. On the removal of the still-cap, the residue is violently stirred and the still-plug quickly removed. The rosin is led

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Toute ce travail là dans les meilleures conditions voulues pour la somme de 16,000 (seize mille) francs, pris dans l'atelier à Bordeaux. Dans ce prix, la construction des fournaux ou fourniture de briques n'est pas comprise ainsi que les toiles métalliques. Le poids approximatif de tout serait de 6,000 (six mille) kilog."

It may be noted that the valve-pipe of the large (1,600 litres) boiler should be furnished with a coarse brass-wire grating, and that a gauze filter on top of the charge is useless and inconvenient. The exhaust valve from the charge should be at the bottom of that receptacle, and not as shown in the drawing. For experimental use in India, two still worms might be supplied; one peforated, the other not. Lastly, the charge and still should be fitted with thermometers.

* Foot Note.—Obtainable from the manufacturer "Carrère, Jeune, Fabrique de tamis et toiles metalliques, 15 Rue Bouquière, Bordeaux." The breadth of the cloth was formerly always 0^m 50, but a width of 0^m 70 is common now and any breadth can be furnished. Supplied in rolls of the length required and of any fineness up to 200.

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through a sieve (No. 8) which retains the coarser impurities, and thence successively through two filter-troughs bottomed with gauzes Nos. 120 and 200. In all cases care is taken, after each consecutive operation, to clean the filter with a wooden or metal scraper: this must be done while the rosin is still hot. The fineness of the gauze varies also, of course, with the grade of oleo-resin and the season of collection. Thus, for the inferior rosins and *résine jaune*, manufactured from the autumn resin, a coarser gauze is employed, as it would be futile to look for colophony of the best quality. The size of the filtering-troughs and the filtering surface of each should be sufficient to permit of the rosin percolating almost as rapidly as it leaves the still. A common trough is one 42″ long by 24″ wide by 14″ deep, the sides and ends sloping inwards so as to enable one filter to be placed above another. Another and efficient form is shaped like a cylinder, about 48″ long by 18″ across, the ends and framework being of wood or copper, the bottom and sides of wire gauze. The molten rosin enters by the opening at the top of the filter, which is at the same time turned on its axis, backwards and forwards by hand, through an arc of about 60°.

Clarification of colophony in sunlight. Packing.

17. When the rosin is not of the best quality or cannot be improved in colour by exposure to the light, it is usually run directly from the still into roughly made casks, weighing each about 50 lbs., costing two or three francs and containing 880 lbs. (400 kilograms) of rosin. Any escape of hot liquid between the staves is at once plugged with wet clay. The finest grades of colophony, water-white and window-glass, are obtained by ladling the product of spring resin or virgin dip into pans which are left, for a longer or shorter period, to the influence of direct sunlight. These pans are wide shallow saucers, made of galvanized iron and sharply curved upwards at the edge. They are 2½ inches deep and 28 inches across: each weighs 6½ lbs. and contains, when full, 46 lbs. of colophony. They are placed on the ground in the open, and are left there during a period of from 10 to 30 days, according to the weather. Under the influence of bright sunlight and of warm, but not very hot, weather, the amber-coloured rosin in the pans becomes gradually clearer in colour, passing through the palest straw shades until it is finally almost colourless and perfectly transparent. Excess of sunlight and especially of heat must be avoided. In bright temperate weather, cracks and star-shakes occur on the upper surface of the rosin-cakes, which become soft and slowly pliable. Mere cracks are unavoidable and do not affect the market price; but if the heat is excessive, melting ensues. This spoils the colophony, renders it milky in appearance and makes it stick to the pans, which, it may be noted, are not previously treated by greasing or otherwise. When the cakes are sufficiently clear, they are removed from the pans by hand and are placed entire, one above another, in cheap casks, each containing about 19 cakes or 400 kilograms, and are thus sent to market. The work is done for the greater part in spring during fine clear weather, and though expensive is profitable, as the finest grades of colophony sell for about thrice the price of the low-class clear rosins. Apart from colour by transmitted light, one test applied during clarification is that a freshly broken-off surface, when moved under the eye in sunlight, should not present the faintest greenish hue, but should have the same tonality as that of the cake from which the piece was broken.

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18. A full account of the American practice of resin collection and distillation will be found in a report by Dr. Charles Mohr on "The timber pines of the Southern United States" (United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, 1896). The method of collecting the crude turpentine by boxing the trees is admittedly defective as regards the quality of the oleo-resin so obtained, besides being terribly distructive to the forests. Distillation is carried on, usually by furnace heat only, in large copper stills containing as much as 4,000 lbs. of turpentine. Water is continuously admitted towards the close of the operation, and the oleo-resin is only roughly purified before distillation. In these circumstances it is difficult to avoid over-heating, or to procure colophony of the highest grades; and generally the method of manufacture is inferior to that obtaining in France. The yield of oil of turpentine per barrel (280 lbs.) of oleo-resin is about 5 gallons from virgin dip, the fresh exudation from a newly-boxed tree; 4 gallons from yellow-dip, or the runnings of second and subsequent years; and ¾ to 3½ gallons from the scrapings, the inspissated resin on the tree-facings.

American practice.

19. In France crude turpentine is delivered at the factories at from 10 to 15 centimes per kilogram of 2·2 lbs., 30 francs being a fair average price per barrel of 235 litres. Rosin of ordinary quality sells at from 9 to 12 francs per 100 kilograms, and the finest grades at from 13 to 26 francs. Moulds of *résine jaune*, or low-grade rosin, mixed with as much water as can be taken up and weighing each 100 kilograms; sell for 9 or 10 francs delivered at the nearest railway station. Spirits of turpentine in the Bordeaux market oscillates in price between 44 and 54 francs per 100 kilcgrams, but the average may be taken at 50 francs. The following official statistics give particulars of the total French trade:—

Prices and trade.

Year.	Product.	Imports.		Exports.		Countries whence imported	Countries to which exported.
		Quantity (Kilogs.).	Value (Francs).	French produce only, quantity (Kilogs).	Value (Francs).		
1892 .	Oleo-resins and rosin.	694,460	56,557	19,503,180	1,560,174	Germany, Belgium.	Germany, Belgium England, Spain.
1893 .	,, .	446,887	35,750	19,960,311	1,596,285	Russia, Germany, Belgium.	Germany, Belgium, England,
1894 .	,, .	489,364	38,149	17,459,585	1,396,767	Ditto . .	Germany, Belgium, Spain.
1895 .	,, .	517,015	41,361	23,623,672	1,889,893	Ditto . .	Ditto
1892 .	Spirits of turpentine.	48,507	24,738	3,582,366	1,827,007	Belgium, United States, America.	Belgium, Germany.
1893 .	,, .	20,976	10,448	3,242,315	1,621,151	Belgium, England, Italy.	Germany, Belgium, Italy.
1894 .	,, .	21,797	11,314	2,793,366	1,453,706	Germany, Belgium, United States, America.	Germany, Belgium, England.
1895 .	,, .	33,181	16,590	1,673,905	936,902	Ditto . .	Ditto.
1892 .	Rosin oil .	483,691	77,388	1,210,933	196,949	England . .	England, Belgium.
1893 .	,, .	134,599	21,536	1,002,474	160,396	Belgium, England, United States, America.	Germany, Belgium, England.
1894 .	,, .	138,956	22,233	992,185	158,750	Ditto . .	Ditto.
1895 .	,, .	58,304	9,337	981,490	157,038	Ditto . .	Ditto.

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American trade.

20. In America, the principal trade-centres are the ports of Wilmington, Charleston, Savannah and Brunswick. The prices for rosin and oil of turpentine vary greatly, even in the same working season, that of the spirits ranging from 30 to 40 cents per gallon. The total production of colophony and spirits of turpentine is reported at about $\frac{9}{10}$ths that of the whole world. The total exports in 1896 were: spirits, 17,431,566 gallons, valued at 4,613,811 dollars: rosin, 1,517,484 barrels, of 280 lbs. gross each, valued at 2,863,292 dollars. The following figures are extracted from the official returns of "Foreign Commerce and Navigation of the United States" for the year ending 30th June 1896:—

Exports, 1896.

TURPENTINE—	Gallons.	Dollars.
To United Kingdom	8,585,491	2,191,116
„ Germany	2,458,737	631,993
„ Belgium	2,215,242	592,922
„ Netherlands	1,822,245	457,989
„ British East India	10,000	3,500

Exports, 1896.

ROSIN—	Barrels.	Dollars.
To United Kingdom	588,146	1,221,048
„ Germany	584,587	1,031,354
„ Netherlands	181,955	327,347
„ Russia and Baltic	162,296	282,039
„ British East India	500	1,504

British and Indian trade.

21. The London market is almost wholly supplied with the American products, the imports from France being relatively inconsiderable. The quality of American spirits of turpentine varies greatly, and one difficulty in London has been to secure a fairly uniform standard. During the past eight or ten years, however, want of uniformity in the imports has been overcome by a system of blending. The average prices of American spirits of turpentine per cwt. have been during the four years ending with 1896—22*s.* 4*d.*, 21*s.* 4*d.*, 21*s.* 2*d.*, and 20*s.* 1½*d.* respectively. Statistics furnished by the trade of the quantities imported from the States differ considerably from the Board of Trade figures; and indeed, as will be seen from this report, the official American, British and Indian returns are in some respects conflicting. The British returns

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for the year 1895 are as follows; figures for turpentine exported to India are apparently unobtainable:—

Imports, 1895.

	Cwts.	£
TURPENTINE—		
From Russia	10,402	7,749
„ United States, America	492,547	511,327
„ elsewhere	734	989
TOTAL	503,683	520,065
ROSIN—		
From France	56,633	18,460
„ United States, America	1,365,479	326,432
„ elsewhere	5,457	1,906
TOTAL	1,427,569	346,798

Exports, 1895.

	Cwts.	£
TURPENTINE—		
To Russia	2,494	2,808
„ Germany	2,233	2,301
„ Italy	3,046	3,486
„ other foreign countries	4,661	5,283
	12,434	13,878
To British possessions	2,712	3,430
TOTAL	15,146	17,308
ROSIN—		
To foreign countries	19,228	4,732
„ British possessions	10,820	2,416
TOTAL	30,048	7,148

22. The returns for the export of Foreign and Colonial produce give the following as the quantity and value of rosin sent to India from England during the five years 1891 to 1895:—

Indian trade.

	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.
Cwts.	34,168	28,239	38,386	416	8,556
£	8,580	6,869	8,061	6,995	1,983

The Indian Government's foreign trade returns do not distinguish between turpentine and other essential oils, and the figures for the import of rosin from the United Kingdom are not reconcilable with the Board of

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Trade figures. The total imports of rosin according to the Indian returns were as follows for the four years ending with 1895-96:—

	1892-93.	1893-94.	1894-95.	1895-96.
Cwts.	31,575	54,307	43,946	51,221
Rs.	1,33,914	2,44,574	2,15,884	2,91,813

The following are some details of rosin imports into India from the four countries which need alone be considered, the imports from elsewhere being trivial; the figures are for hundredweights:—

	1892-93.	1893-94.	1894-95.	1895-96.
United Kingdom . .	31,362	48,267	25,579	10,783
Belgium . . .	*Nil*	3,411	13,003	13,104
Germany . . .	174	473	4,248	26,214
United States . . .	*Nil*	2,152	1,103	2,052

It will be noticed from the foregoing figures that the trade appears to be rapidly passing from the United Kingdom to Belgium and Germany, which draw immense and increasing supplies directly from France and the United States. If this be so, the more reason would there appear to be for creating or fostering manufacture in India. It is, of course, no longer possible to suppose that rosin or spirits of turpentine from Indian pines could ever compete in Europe with the local or American products.

Development of the industry in India.

23. It seems probable that the comparatively low standard of spirits of turpentine and of colophony experimentally manufactured in India is due, as so often is the case in America, as much and perhaps more to a defective method of collecting the raw resin and transporting it to the place of manufacture as to an inferior process of distillation. The preliminary purification of the oleo-resin is probably also insufficient. The best means of collecting, tapping and storing are fully indicated in standard Forest text-books. For carriage it seems very doubtful if old kerosine oil cans, as used in India, should be employed at all, even if apparently well tinned internally. Light barrels might be tried, or some of the many patterns of bottle or gourd used by the natives for mule-carriage of vegetable oil: and evaporation of the volatile spirit should be guarded against. As regards the most suitable process of distillation, the pure steam method may be put out of account, at least for many years to come. The first cost of the plant is considerable, the machinery is complicated, and a complete installation could only be justified were a very large supply of crude resin readily available and were the local markets in need of a plentiful and continuous supply of high-class products. These conditions could not at present be satisfied anywhere in India or Burma.

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There remain the methods by furnace heat only and by furnace and steam combined. A decision as to which of these processes should be applied in any particular locality, supposing always that there exist a sufficient supply of raw resin and an adequate demand for the manufactured products, would depend mainly on the grade of turpentine and rosin desired. One of the foremost French manufacturers said: "If you do not require fine products in India, then apply a cruder system of distillation. You will obtain spirits and colophony of fair quality as well as a better yield per 100 kilograms of oleo-resin. But if you wish to do better, you will be compelled to apply the mixed method or to distill by steam alone." The decision would also be determined partly by the size of still required. The products will not bear the expense of long land carriage, so that in India it will probably be found necessary to establish small distilleries, widely separated from each other, wherever sufficient oleo-resin is available. With the mixed method the best results cannot be obtained unless a fairly large still, one containing not less than about 50 gallons, is used; and this may be found too large a size for anything like continuous working, a conditon which has an important bearing on the expense, especially when steam is used. But in any circumstances a 50-gallon or larger still can be fitted with a detachable steam worm and can then, if properly set up in the first instance, be made available either for ordinary or steam distillation. It will be well to bear this point in mind when designing factories for India. As to the minimum quantity of crude oleo-resin which should be available in the vicinity before a steam still of moderate size is set up, it is doubtful, judging by French practice, whether less than from 15,000 to 20,000 gallons yearly would be sufficient for economical working. Apart from the actual distillation, however, a supply of steam may be of great utility in the first purification of oleo-resin, for cleaning empty casks and for pumping water to the condenser supply-cistern. For this purpose a small steam boiler, and possibly an engine of one-half or three-quarters horse-power, are fully sufficient. An ample supply of water is essential; and in India it may often be found practicable to locate the factory so that a stream of water may flow by gravity only directly to the condenser. Suitable copper stills are no doubt procurable in England if drawings are furnished with the order. The resin industry is, however, as little known in Britain as it is understood at Bordeaux: and it would, therefore, seem advisable to order in the first instance one or more French pattern stills, together with the copper charges and possibly the copper boilers, cisterns, and condensing worms. The apparatus, in whole or part, can be supplied by the manufacturer already referred to, Monsieur Tocaven, who has set up machinery in the largest and best resin factories and has a wide and practical knowledge of the subject.

J. L. PIGOT,

18th June 1897. *Deputy Conservator of Forests.*

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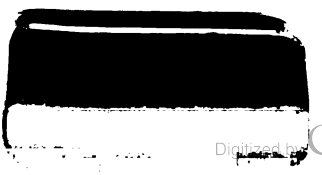
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